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[The public are respectfully informed, that this Number completes three distinct Volumes: the 3d Vol. of the miscellaneous part of the *Britannic Magazine*, the 2d Volume of the *Wars of England*, and the 1st Volume of the *History of France*, all which are to be bound separately. And it is recommended to the Subscribers to put them in boards only for the present, as at the conclusion of each of the annexed Histories full Directions will be given for placing the Plates to the whole.]

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T H E

# BRITANNIC MAGAZINE,

OR ENTERTAINING REPOSITORY OF

## HEROIC ADVENTURES,

AND MEMORABLE EXPLOITS.

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### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.

**I**T is believed by many, and not without some plausible foundation, that America was known to the ancients. Of this, however, history affords no certain evidence. The Norwegians, the Welsh, and the Germans, each in their turn, have made pretensions to the discovery of America. As early as 874 the Norwegians discovered, and planted, a colony in Iceland; and in 982, they discovered, and made settlements in, Greenland. Thence, some of their enterprising navigators proceeded still farther westward till they discovered a country, the coast of which was sandy, but the interior parts level and covered with wood, on which account they called it Helle-land and Mark-land; and having afterwards found some plants of the vine, which bore grapes, they called it Wine-land or Vine-land. But where this country lies historians are not agreed. If it was any part of the American coast, as it probably must have been, all attempts to plant colonies in it proved unsuccessful, and the knowledge of it was soon lost.

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The pretensions of the Welsh to the discovery of America have but a slight foundation. In the 12th century, according to Powell, a dispute having arisen among the sons of Owen Gwyneth, king of North-Wales, concerning the succession to his crown, Madoc, one of the number, weary of this contention, betook himself to sea, in search of a more peaceful settlement. He steered due west, leaving Ireland to the north, and arrived in an unknown country, which appeared to him desirable; he returned to Wales, and carried thither several of his adherents and companions. This is said to have taken place about the year 1170. He and his colony have not been heard of since.

Some German authors ascribe the honour of having discovered America to Martin Behaim, their countryman. He descended from a noble family, of the imperial town of Nuremburgh—was a scholar of the celebrated John Muller, and became an adept in the science of cosmography. Under the patronage of the  
Duchess

B



Duchess of Burgundy he repaired to Lisbon, whither the fame of the Portuguese discoveries invited all the adventurous spirits of the age. In 1483, in company with Diego Cano, he made a voyage to the southward, and is said to have discovered the kingdom of Congo, on the coast of Africa. He settled in the island of Fayal, one of the Azores, and was a particular friend of Columbus. He constructed a terrestrial globe, which afterwards fell into the hands of Magellan. On this globe Magellan laid down the course which he purposed to hold in search of the communication with the South Sea, which he afterwards discovered. In the year 1492, Behaim visited his relations at Nuremburgh, and left with them a map, drawn with his own hands, which is still preserved among the archives of the family. So far the story of Martin Behaim is well authenticated; but as to the accounts of his having discovered any part of the American coast, though credited by some ingenious men, they have too great an appearance of conjecture to gain general belief. For aught we can learn from authentic documents, the eastern continent was the only theatre of history, the partial discoveries of the Norwegians excepted, from the creation till the year of our Lord 1492; and Columbus has a fair claim to the honour of being the discoverer of the New World.

Christopher Columbus, a subject of the republic of Genoa, was among the foreigners, whom the fame of the discoveries of the Portuguese had allured into their service. He descended from a noble family reduced by misfortunes; but neither the time nor place of his birth are certainly known. His ancestors, having had recourse to a seafaring life for support, Columbus, from his early youth, discovered such peculiar talents for that profession, as indicated his future greatness.—His parents encouraged this original propensity by giving him a suitable education. After acquiring some knowledge of the Latin tongue, the only language in which science was taught at that time, he was instructed in geometry,

cosmography, astronomy, and the art of drawing. To these he applied with such ardour and predilection, on account of their connection with navigation, his favourite object, that he made rapid proficiency in them. Thus qualified, in 1461, at the early age of fourteen, he went to sea, and began his career on that element which conducted him to so much glory. His early voyages were limited principally to those places which had before been discovered, in which nothing very remarkable happened, except that in a sea-fight, off the coast of Portugal, with some Venetian coasters, the vessel on-board which he served, took fire together with one of the enemy's, to which it was fast grappled; upon which he threw himself into the sea, laid hold of a floating-oar, and by the support of it, and his dexterity in swimming, he reached the shore, though more than six miles distant, and thus preserved a life designed for great undertakings.

Soon after this he went to Lisbon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Perestrelo, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early voyages, and who had discovered and planted the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira. The journals and charts of this experienced navigator, his father-in-law, fell into his hands, and he, with avidity, availed himself of the valuable information they contained. His impatience to visit the places which Perestrelo had seen and described, became irresistible; and he made a voyage to Madeira, and spent several years in trading with that island, the Canaries, the Azores, the settlements in Guinea, and all other places which the Portuguese had discovered on the continent of Africa.

By the experience acquired during such a variety of voyages, Columbus became one of the most skilful navigators of Europe. But his ambition did not permit him to rest satisfied with that praise. He aimed at something more. A project had been conceived of finding out a passage by sea to the East Indies. The accomplishment of this became a favourite object with Columbus. The Portuguese

guese sought this route by steering towards the south, in hope of arriving at India, by turning to the east, after they had sailed round the farther extremity of Africa; which passage was afterwards effected in 1497, by Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator. Columbus contemplated a shorter and more direct passage to the East Indies, by sailing towards the west, across the Atlantic ocean. The principles and argument which induced him to adopt this opinion, then considered as chimerical, were highly rational and philosophical. The sphericity and magnitude of the earth were at that period ascertained with some degree of accuracy. From this it was evident, that the continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, formed but a small part of the terraqueous globe. It appeared likewise extremely probable, that the continent on the one side of the globe was balanced by a proportionable quantity of land in the other hemisphere. These conclusions concerning the existence of another continent, drawn from the figure and structure of the globe, were confirmed by the observations and conjectures of modern navigators, and from pieces of timber artificially carved, canes of an enormous size, trees torn up by the roots, and the dead bodies of two men with singular features, which had been discovered and taken up, floating before a westerly wind, or driven on the coasts of the Azores. The force of this united evidence, arising from theoretical principles and practical observations, led Columbus to conclude, that by sailing directly towards the west, across the Atlantic ocean, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vast continent of India, must infallibly be discovered.

As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a physician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of cosmography. He warmly approved of the plan; suggested several facts in confirmation of it, and encouraged Columbus to persevere in an undertaking so laudable, and which must redound so much to the honour of his country, and the benefit of Europe.

Columbus now became impatient to bring to the test of experiment, the truth of his system, and to set out upon a voyage of discovery. The first step towards this was to secure the patronage of some of the considerable powers of Europe. With this view he laid his scheme before the senate of Genoa, and, making his native and beloved country the first tender of his service, offered to sail, under the banners of the republic, in quest of new regions which he expected to discover. But they, incapable of forming just ideas of his principles, inconsiderately rejected his proposal as chimerical. He then submitted his plan to the Portuguese, who perfidiously attempted to rob him of the honour of accomplishing it, by privately sending another person to pursue the same tract which he had proposed. But the pilot, who was thus basely employed to execute Columbus's plan, had neither the genius nor the fortitude of its author. Contrary winds arose—no land appeared—his courage failed, and he returned to Lisbon, execrating a plan which he had not abilities to execute.

On discovering this flagrant treachery, Columbus immediately quitted the kingdom in disgust, and landed in Spain, towards the close of the year 1484. Here he resolved to propose it in person to Ferdinand and Isabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Castile and Arragon. He, in the mean time, sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to propose his plan to Henry. VII.

After experiencing a series of mortifying disappointments, during eight tedious years, Columbus, in deep anguish, withdrew from court, determined to repair to England as his last resource. At this juncture the affairs of Spain, which had been perplexed in consequence of a war with the Moors, took a favourable turn: Quintanilla and Santangel, two powerful, vigilant, and discerning patrons of Columbus, seized this favourable opportunity to make one more effort in behalf of their friend. They addressed themselves to Isabella, with such forcible arguments as produced the desired effect. They dispelled all



Isabella's doubts and fears;—she ordered Columbus, who had proceeded on his journey, to be instantly recalled—declared her resolution to employ him on his own terms; and, regretting the low estate of her finances, generously offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be needed in making preparations for the voyage. Santangel, in a transport of gratitude, kissed the queen's hand, and, in order to save her from having recourse to such a mortifying expedient for procuring money, engaged to advance, immediately, the sum that was requisite.

Columbus had proceeded some leagues on his journey, when the messenger from Isabella overtook him. He returned with joy mingled with some degree of fear, lest he should again be disappointed. The manner of his reception by the queen was, however, such as quickly dispelled his fears. A negotiation commenced, and was forwarded with dispatch, and a treaty of capitulation, with Columbus, was signed on the 7th of April 1492. The chief articles of it were, 1. Ferdinand and Isabella, as sovereigns of the ocean, constituted Columbus their high-admiral in all the seas, islands, and continents, which should be discovered by his industry; and stipulated, that he and his heirs for ever should enjoy this office, with the same powers and prerogatives which belonged to the high-admiral of Castile, within the limits of his jurisdiction. 2. They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the islands and continents which he should discover; but if, for the better administration of affairs, it should be necessary to establish a separate governor in any of those countries, they authorised Columbus to name three persons, of whom they would chuse one for that office; and the dignity of viceroy, with all its immunities, was likewise to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. 3. They granted to Columbus and his heirs for ever, the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he should discover. 4. They declared,

if any controversy or lawsuit should arise, with respect to any mercantile transaction, in the countries which shall be discovered, it should be determined by the sole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. 5. They permitted Columbus to advance one eighth part of what should be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he should discover, and intitled him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Though the name of Ferdinand appears conjoined with that of Isabella in this transaction, his distrust of Columbus was so violent, that he refused to take any part of the enterprise, as King of Arragon. As the whole expence of the expedition was to be defrayed by the crown of Castile, Isabella reserved for her subjects of that kingdom, an exclusive right to all the benefits which might redound from its success.

After all the efforts of Isabella and Columbus, the armament was suitable neither to the dignity of the power who equipped it, nor to the importance of the service to which it was destined. It consisted of three vessels; the largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria. Of the second, called the Pinta, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the Nigna, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These two last mentioned were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats.—This little squadron was victualled for twelve months, and had on-board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers, who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. The sum employed in fitting out this squadron did not exceed 4000l. sterling.

On the 3d of August, 1492, being Friday, Columbus set sail, in the presence of a vast crowd of spectators, who offered fervent supplications to heaven for his success, which they rather

rather wished than expected. He steered directly for the Canary islands, and, in the short time run thither, found his ships crazy and ill appointed, and very unfit for so long and dangerous a navigation as he had undertaken. After refitting them as well as he could, he left the Canaries on the 6th of September; and here properly commenced the voyage of discovery. He held his course due west, and immediately left the usual track of navigation, and stretched into unknown and unfrequented seas. By the 14th of September the fleet was about two hundred leagues west of the Canaries, at a greater distance from land than any Spaniard had been before that time.

Columbus early discovered, from the spirit of his followers, that he must prepare to struggle, not only with the unavoidable difficulties which might be expected from the nature of his undertaking, but with such also as were likely to arise from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. All the art and address he was master of was hardly sufficient to quell the mutinous disposition of his sailors, who grew the more turbulent in proportion as their distance from home increased. What most astonished Columbus, during the voyage, was the variation of the magnetic needle. He observed that it did not point exactly to the polar star, but varied towards the west. This appearance, then one of the mysteries of nature, though now familiar, filled the companions of Columbus with terror. They were now in the midst of a trackless ocean—nature herself seemed to be altered, and the only guide they had left was about to fail them. Columbus, with no less quickness than ingenuity, invented a reason for this appearance; which, though it did not satisfy himself, seemed so plausible to them, that it dispelled their fears, and silenced their murmurs.

On the evening of the 11th of Oct. Columbus was so confident, from various appearances, of being near land, that he ordered the sails to be furled, and the ships to lie to, and strict watch to be kept lest they should

be driven on-shore in the night. During this interval of suspense and expectation, no man shut his eyes; all kept on deck, gazing intently towards that quarter where they expected to discover the land, which had so long been the object of their wishes. A little before midnight, Columbus, from the fore-castle, discovered a light at a distance,—and shortly after the joyful sound of land! land! was heard from the *Pinta*, which always kept a-head of the other ships. At the dawn of day, an island was seen from every ship, at the distance of about two leagues north, whose verdant aspect indicated a most delightful country. The crews of all the ships, with tears of joy and transports of congratulation, unitedly sang *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God. They then, with feelings of self-condemnation, mingled with reverence, threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, begged him to forgive their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence, which had given him so much unnecessary disquiet—acknowledged his superior abilities, and promised obedience in future.

At sun-rising, the boats were manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike music and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects before them. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and, kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They next erected a crucifix, and, prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to so happy an issue. They then took solemn and formal possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon.

The dress of the Spaniards, their beards, their arms, the vast machines with which they had traversed the ocean,



ocean, the thundering roar of the cannon, accompanied with lightning and smoke, filled the natives with surprise and terror, and they began to consider them as children of the sun, who had descended to visit mortals here below.

The Spaniards were hardly less amazed in their turn. The productions of the island were different from any thing they had seen in Europe. The inhabitants appeared in the simple innocence of nature, entirely naked. Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their shoulders, or was bound in tresses round their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly smooth. Their complexion was of a dusky copper colour; their features singular rather than disagreeable, and their aspect gentle and timid. They were shy at first, through fear, but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and with transports of joy received from them various kinds of trinkets, in return for which they gave provisions, and some cotton-yarn, the only commodity of value they could produce. Thus in the first interview between the inhabitants of the Old and New Worlds, every thing was conducted amicably, and to their mutual satisfaction.

The island on which Columbus first landed he called San Salvador. It is one of that large cluster of islands known by the name of the Lucaya or Bahama islands, and is above three thousand miles west of the Canaries.

He afterwards touched at several islands of the same cluster, inquiring every where for gold, which he thought was the only object of commerce worth his attention. In steering southward, he discovered the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, and inhabited by a humane and hospitable people.

On his return to Spain he was overtaken by storm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ships and their crews. At a crisis when all was given up for lost, Columbus had presence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a

short account of his voyage. This he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he inclosed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea, in hopes that some fortunate accident might preserve a deposit of so much importance to the world. He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had sailed the year before, on the 15th of March 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to bestow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greatest respect.

In September, of this year, (1493) Columbus sailed upon his second voyage to America; during the performance of which, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Mariegalante, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica; and returned to Spain in 1496.

In 1498, he sailed a third time for America; and on the 1st of August discovered the continent, at the mouth of the river Oronoke. He then coasted along westward, making other discoveries, for two hundred leagues to Cape Vela, from which he crossed over to Hispaniola, where he was seized by a new Spanish governor, and sent home in chains.

In 1502 Columbus made his fourth, and last, voyage to Hispaniola; thence he went over to the continent—discovered the bay of Honduras—thence sailed along the main shore easterly two hundred leagues, to Cape Gracias a Dios, Verague, Porto Bello, and the Gulf of Darien, searching, in vain, for a passage to the East Indies. During this voyage, he was shipwrecked on the island of Jamaica, where he suffered almost inconceivably from the cruelty of the inhabitants, the mutiny of his men, and especially from the infamous conduct of the governor of Hispaniola. He returned to Spain in 1504. On his arrival he received the fatal news of the death of his patroness, Queen Isabella.

The jealous and avaricious Spaniards, not immediately receiving those golden advantages from these new discoveries which they had promised, and lost to the feelings of humanity



humanity and gratitude, suffered their esteem and admiration of Columbus to degenerate into ignoble envy.

The latter part of his life was made wretched by the cruel persecutions of his enemies. Queen Isabella, his friend and patroness, was no longer alive to afford him relief. He sought redress from Ferdinand, but in vain. Disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch whom he had served with so much fidelity and success, exhausted with hardships, and broken with the infirmities which these brought upon him, Columbus ended his active and useful life at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He died with a composure of mind suited to the magnanimity which distinguished his character, and with sentiments of piety becoming that supreme respect for religion which he manifested in every occurrence of his life. He was grave though courteous in his deportment, circumspect in his words and actions, irreproachable in his morals, and exemplary in all the duties of his religion.

Among other adventurers to the New World, in pursuit of gold, was Americus Vesputius, a Florentine gentleman, whom Ferdinand had appointed to draw sea-charts, and to whom he had given the title of chief pilot. This man accompanied Ojeda, an enterprising Spanish adventurer, to America; and having with much art, and some degree of elegance, drawn up an amusing history of his voyage, he published it to the world. It circulated rapidly, and was read with admiration. In his narrative,

he had insinuated that the glory of having first discovered the New World belonged to him. This was in part believed, and the country began to be called after the name of its supposed first discoverer. The unaccountable caprice of mankind has perpetuated the error; so that now, by the universal consent of all nations, this new quarter of the globe is, after him, called America. The bold pretensions of a fortunate impostor have thus robbed the discoverer of the New World of a distinction which belonged to him. The name of Americus has supplanted that of Columbus, and mankind are left to regret an act of injustice, which, having been sanctioned by time, they can never redress.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus in the name of the King of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland; a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius and a brave commander, shewed the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress Queen Elizabeth; and first laid the foundation of that vast empire, which Great Britain so long possessed in America.

*(To be continued.)*

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE DOMINIONS OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

THE duchy of Brunswick is one of the German States, bounded on the north by the duchy of Lunenburg; on the west, by the circle of Westphalia, from which it is separated by the river Weser; on the south by Hesse, and the little territory of Piechfield; and on the east by Thuringia, with the principalities of Anhalt and Halberstadt, and the duchy

of Magdeburg. The rivers are, the Weser, the Ocker, and the Lyne; and it is fertile both in corn and pastures. It is divided into three principalities, Wolfenbüttele, Grubenhagen, and Calenberg, which also comprehends the duchy of Göttingen. The principality of Wolfenbüttele has its own dukes; but the other two belong to the Elector of Hanover.

Hanover. The territories of the house of Brunswick are more extensive; the principal of which are the duchies of Brunswick and Lunenburg, with the country of Danneburg, which is annexed thereto. The rest are Blankenburg, Dieport, and Hoyer, besides two or three smaller districts.

The city of Brunswick, which is the capital of the duchy, is composed of five towns, viz. the Old Town, the New Town, the Hagen or Burg, the Old Wieck, and the Sack, which makes it a large place, but the houses are almost all built of wood. There are several churches, one of which is an ancient Gothic building, but the appearance of its antiquity is almost absorbed by the repairs it has undergone. Brunswick is a fortified place, and would require a numerous army to besiege, and not a few men to defend, it. It is of a square form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker. It is about two miles in circumference, and is strongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar-piece of brass, ten feet six inches long, and nine feet two inches in circumference, weighing eighteen hundred quintals, and has ninety-three quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of seven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the distance of thirty-three thousand paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand weight; but it requires fifty-two pounds of powder for a charge. This city is the residence of the prince whom we style the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele, father of the newly-married and most amiable consort of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. The inhabitants of the city and parts adjacent carry on a considerable trade with Bohemia. Brunswick-mum is well known in England; a small sort of which is the common drink of the inhabitants of the city. The religion here, as well as in Hanover, is the Lutheran, and they observe it very strictly. The peasants are sober and laborious, but clownish and heavy; however, as they are robust and strong, they make good soldiers. The Elector of Hanover is styled Duke of Brunswick, though he has no property in,

nor dominion over, this city, which belongs to the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele above-mentioned. The number of inhabitants is about twenty-four thousand; and the whole income of the duke is estimated at 130,000*l*. The academy of Brunswick, Dr. Moore informs us, has been new-modelled, and the plan of education improved, by the attention, and under the patronage, of the hereditary prince. Students now resort to this academy from many parts of Germany; and there are generally some young gentlemen from Britain who are sent to be educated here. Such of them as are intended for a military life, will not find so many advantages united at any other place on the continent as at the academy of Brunswick. They will here be under the protection of a family partial to the British nation:—every branch of science is taught by masters of known abilities;—the young students will see garrison-duty regularly performed, and may by the interest of the prince obtain liberty to attend the reviews of the Prussian troops at Magdeburg and Berlin. They will have few temptations to expence, in a town where they can see no examples of extravagance;—have few opportunities of dissipation, and none of gross debauchery.

The fortifications of Brunswick were of great utility in a former war with France, and on one occasion they saved the town from being pillaged, and afforded Prince Frederic, then in the Prussian service, an opportunity of performing an action, which it is imagined gave him more joy than twenty victories. This happened in the year 1761, soon after the battle of Kirch Denkern, when Duke Ferdinand protected Hanover, not by conducting his army into that country, and defending it directly, as the enemy seemed to expect, and probably wished; but by diversion, attacking with strong detachments, commanded by the hereditary prince, their magazines in Hesse, and thus drawing their attention from Hanover to that quarter. While the duke lay encamped at Wilthemsthal, watching the motions of Broglie's army,



army, the marechal being greatly superior in numbers, sent a body of twenty thousand men, under Prince Xavier of Saxony, who took possession of Wolfenbuttle, and soon after invested Brunswick. Prince Ferdinand, anxious to save his native city, ventured to detach five thousand of his army, small as it was, under his nephew Frederic, assisted by General Luckener, with orders to harraßs the enemy, and endeavour to raise the siege. The young prince, while on his march, sent a soldier with a letter to the governor, which was wrapped round a bullet, and which the soldier was to swallow in case of his being taken by the enemy.—He had the good fortune to get safe into the town. The letter apprised the commander of the garrison of the prince's approach, and particularised the night and hour when he expected to be at a certain place near the town, requiring him to favour his entrance.

In the middle of the night appointed, the prince fell suddenly on the enemy's cavalry, who, unsuspicious of his approach, were encamped carelessly within a mile of the town. They were immediately dispersed, and spread such an alarm among the infantry, that they also retreated with considerable loss. Early in the morning the young prince entered Brunswick, amidst the acclamations of his fellow-citizens, whom he had relieved from the horrors of a siege. The hereditary prince, having destroyed the French magazines in Hesse, had been recalled by his uncle, and ordered to attempt the relief of Brunswick. While he was advancing with all possible speed, and had got within a few leagues of the town, he received the news of the siege being raised. On his arrival at his father's palace, he found his brother Frederic at table, politely entertaining the French officers, who had been taken prisoners the preceding night.

Lunenbourg or Brunswick-Lunenbourg-Zell, is also a principality of Germany, bounded to the south by that of Calenberg, the diocese of Hildesheim, and the duchy of Brunswick; to the north, by the duchy of Lauenbourg and the Elbe, by the last

of which it is separated from the territory of the imperial city of Hamburg; to the east, by the duchy of Brunswick, the Alte Mark, and the duchy of Mecklenburg; and to the west, by the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the county of Hoya, and the principality of Calenberg. The soil, except along the Elbe, Aller, and Jetz, is either sand, heath, or moors. In the more fruitful parts of it are produced wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, buck-wheat, flax, hemp, hops, pulse, oak, beech, firs, pines, birch, and alder, together with black cattle and horses. The heaths abound with bees and honey, and a small kind of sheep whose wool is long and coarse. Lunenburg is well furnished with salt-springs and limestone, and the forest of Gorde with venison. The rivers Elbe, Ilmenau, and Aller, are navigable; and consequently very advantageous to the country, independent of the fish which they yield. The general diets of this principality are convened by the sovereign twice a year, and held at Zell. They consist of the deputies of the nobility and the towns of Lunenburg, Uelzen, and Zell, who have the nomination of the members of the high colleges, and other officers, jointly with the sovereign. There are near two hundred Lutheran churches in the country, under two general and fifteen subordinate superintendants, several grammar-schools, two Calvinist churches at Zell; and an academy of exercises at Lunenburg. The manufactures are chiefly linen-cloth, cottons, ribbons, stockings, hats, starch, bleached wax, refined sugar, gold and silver wires, all kinds of wooden-ware, barges, boats, and ships. The exports of these to Hamburg, Lubec, and Altena, are considerable. The neighbourhood of these cities, with the facility of conveying goods and merchandize to them and other places either by land or water, is very advantageous to this country, and contributes greatly to its subsistence. On account of this principality, the King of Great Britain has a seat and voice both in the college of the princes of the empire and of the circle of Lower Saxony. Its quota in the Matricula



is twenty horses and one hundred and twenty foot, or seven hundred and twenty florins in lieu of them. The revenues of the principality arise chiefly from the demesnes, tolls on the Elbe, contributions, duties on cattle, beer, wine, brandy, and other commodities, which all together must be very considerable, some bailiwicks alone yielding upwards of 20,000 rix-dollars.

Lunenburg, the capital of this principality, is a pretty large town, situate on the river Elmen, or the Ilmenau, which is navigable from the town to the Elbe, at the distance of thirteen miles. It is twenty-seven miles from Hamburg, forty-three from Zell, sixty-five from Brunswick, seventy-six from Bremen, sixty-eight from Hanover; and stands in E. long. 10. 40. N. lat. 53. 28. Its inhabitants are reckoned at between eight thousand and nine thousand. Formerly this town was one of the Hanse, and an imperial city. Some derive its name from *Lina*, the ancient name of the Ilmenau; others from *Luna*, the moon, an image of which is said to have been worshipped by the inhabitants in the times of Paganism. Here were anciently several convents, viz. one of Minims, another of Premonstratensians, another of Benedictines, and a fourth of Minorites. Out of the revenues of the Benedictine monastery was founded an academy for the martial exercises, where young gentlemen of the principality of Lunenburg are maintained gratis, and taught French, fencing, riding, and dancing; but foreigners are educated at a certain fixed price. A Latin school was also founded, consisting of four classes, and well endowed out of these revenues. The superintendency and management of these, and the estates appropriated to their maintenance, belong to the landschaft director, and the aufreiter, who are both chosen from among the Lunenburg nobility. The first came in place of the Popish abbot, and as such is head of the states of the principality, and president of the provincial college. He has the title of excellency; and in public instruments

styles himself, by the grace of God landschaft director, and lord of the mansion of St. Michael in Lunenburg. The chief public edifices are three parish-churches, the ducal-palace, three hospitals, the town-house, the salt-magazine, the anatomical theatre, the academy; the conventual-church of St. Michael, in which lie interred the ancient dukes; and in which is the famous table eight feet long, and four wide, plated over with chased gold, with a rim embellished with precious stones, of an immense value, which was taken from the Saracens by the emperor Otho, and presented to this church; but in 1698, a gang of thieves stripped it of two hundred rubies and emeralds, together with a large diamond, and most of the gold, so that at present but a small part of it remains. Here are some very rich salt-springs. Formerly, when there was a greater demand for the salt, upwards of 120,000 tons have been annually boiled here, and sold off: but, since the commencement of the present century, the salt-trade hath declined greatly. A fifth of the salt made here belongs to the King of Great Britain, but is farmed out. It is said to excel all other salt made in Germany. This town is well fortified; and has a garrison, which is lodged in barracks. In the neighbourhood is a good limestone quarry; and along the Ilmenau are ware-houses, in which are lodged goods brought from all parts of Germany, to be forwarded by the Ilmenau to Hamburg, or by the Asche to Lubec, from whence other goods are brought back the same way. The town itself drives a considerable traffic in wax, honey, wool, flax, linen, salt, lime, and beer.

Hanover is one of the states of Germany, of which the King of Great Britain is elector, and is very considerable for the extent of its territories, which at present are, the duchy of Calenberg, in which are the cities of Hanover, Calenberg, Hame-len, Neustadt, Gottingen, &c. the duchy of Grubenhagen, the county of Diepholt, the county of Illoga, in the bishopric of Hildesheim; the bailiages

bailiages of Coldingen, Luther, Badenburg, and Westerhoven, with the right of protection of the city of Hildesheim; and the country of Danneberg, ceded by the Dukes of Wolfenbüttele to the Dukes of Lunenburg, as an equivalent for their pretensions on the city of Brunswick. The elector possesses likewise the country of Delmenhorst, and the duchies of Bremen and Verden, sold by the King of Denmark in 1715: the right of possessing alternately the bishopric of Osnaburg belongs solely to the electoral branch; but, if it shall happen to fail, the dukes of Wolfenbüttele are to enjoy the same right. This electorate has no navy, but a considerable marine on the great rivers Elbe and Weser.

The sovereign power is administered by the lords of the regency appointed by the King of Great Britain, elector. Throughout all the provinces they possess a considerable share of freedom, the people being represented in the assemblies of the states. No government can be more mild; and an air of content is spread over all the inhabitants. The Conseil Intimè, the high court of justice, and the regency, are the principal courts of justice; besides which, every province has its municipal administration with the inferior divisions into bailiwicks, &c. The police is excellent, and justice fairly administered. The elector enjoys the right *de non appellando* in all criminal affairs, but in civil processes only as far as 2000 florins.

Lutheranism is the established religion; but all others enjoy a perfect toleration, and are publicly exercised. Difference in religious sentiments here gives no interruption to that harmony which should subsist among fellow-citizens. There are seven hundred and fifty Lutheran parishes, fourteen reformed communities, a Romish college, a convent, and some catholic churches.

Literature is in a very advanced state throughout these dominions. The university of Gottingen is deservedly celebrated; and contains about eight hundred students of different nations, and sixty professors. There are besides several colleges, and a number of well established schools, throughout the electorate. In general, education is much attended to.

Although there are various tracts of heath and marshy ground, the soil in general produces abundance of corn, fruits, hemp, flax, tobacco, madder, and some wine. There are several large salt-works. A good deal of cattle are reared, and a great number of excellent horses. Most metals and minerals are found here. The forests furnish sufficient timber, and large quantities of pitch and tar. —The natural productions of the electorate furnish ample materials for commerce, so as to prevent the balance being against them, although their manufactures are not sufficient for consumption. Cattle, horses, salt, wrought-iron, and fuel, are the principal articles of export. Bremen is one of the greatest commercial towns in Germany.

The city of Hanover, which is the capital of the above electorate, is agreeably situated in a sandy plain on the river Leyne, in E. long. 10. 5. N. lat. 22. 5. It is a large well-built town, and pretty well fortified. It has suffered greatly by the French, who got possession of it in 1757, but were soon after driven out. It is noted for a particular kind of beer, reckoned excellent in these parts. This city was the residence of the elector before he ascended the throne of Great Britain. The palace makes no great show outwardly, but within it is richly furnished. The regency of the country is administered in the same manner as if the sovereign was present.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

EUGENIQ AND MATILDA.

I NEED not tell you, that the campaign of 1757 was not very glorious to the British arms. The first considerable action in which I par-

took, was very inauspicious. I carried a pair of colours under the Duke of Cumberland, when he lost the battle of Hestenberg, against the

Marshal



Marshal d'Etrees. Little anxious about my life, and disdaining to fly, I kept my ground in the midst of a close body of Hanoverians, who made a desperate stand in defence of my colours. The blood I lost from a wound I received in my thigh, made me tumble upon the bodies of those brave men who had fallen by my side; and even in this condition, when death seemed inevitable, my mind ran back to that ominous incident of my playful years, when, holding fast my mock banner to my little bosom, I fell breathless at the back of my father's garden. A wound which I now received on the back of my head, with the stroke of a sabre, rendered me perfectly insensible to all the horrors which passed around me; and, when I recovered my faculties, I perceived that night was fast coming on; that the engagement was over; and that I had been left for dead on the field, amidst a heap of bodies, which formed a kind of rampart around me. My hat had so far defended me, that the blow on my head had only occasioned a large contusion, and a considerable hæmorrhage, which, added to the loss of blood from my other wound, made it difficult for me to raise myself.

By exerting the very utmost of my little strength, I crept along to the distance of about a mile from the place where I had lain, when I heard, amidst the gloomy silence of the night, the sound of a horse's hoofs behind me. I had forgotten the plume in my hat, which was conspicuous enough to discover me at a considerable distance; and the horseman, directed, I suppose, by this mark, came up with me, in a few seconds, on the gallop. He had a drawn sabre in his hand, from which I patiently expected my death, as I leaned against the trunk of a miserable pollard, in the midst of the heath. He accosted me in German; but, upon my answering in English, he told me, in my own language, that he was a Hanoverian captain, who had been compelled to fly with his troop, after receiving a wound from a musket-shot in the shoulder. He invited me to accompany him to a

light, which he distinguished at about a mile's distance. I assured him, however, that I was unable to proceed any further, and, wishing he might repose that night in a safe asylum, desired to be left where I was to finish my existence. This humane person, however, persuaded me, after many intreaties, to suffer myself to be raised on his horse, which carried us to the house where the light had been perceived.

As soon as I was taken off the horse, I became insensible, through weakness, and was carried fainting to bed. It was morning before I came to the possession of my faculties, when I saw my companion and preserver sitting by my bed-side, and expressing in his looks the tenderest concern for my situation. My wounds had been dressed, and I was every way so recovered as to be able to converse with him, which as soon as he perceived, he took me by the hand, and addressed me thus:—'Let it support you, my dear sir, to be assured that you are here under the kindest and most hospitable roof that the sun shines upon; and the people to whom we are indebted for such a seasonable relief, are some of the best, if not the wealthiest, on earth. But if you, sir, have reason to rejoice, how supremely happy ought I to consider myself, not because my life has been preserved, for that is of no high price, but because, in this place, I have recovered that for which I most should wish to live—the best and most affectionate of wives. My poor Matilda would follow me yesterday to the camp, in spite of my persuasions: I should fain have lodged her in the garrison at Hamelen; but a something which she had dreamed a week before had made such a gloomy impression on her spirits, that she would not part from me till we took the field against the enemy. Having heard that I was among the slain, she betook herself last night to this little cottage, which is always open to misfortune, determined to search the field over as soon as it was light, for the body of her husband, to wash its wounds with her tears, and perhaps to lay down her life by its side. You may



may imagine, sir, what a delicious interview we have had, and how we have wept for joy in each other's arms.' 'As he spoke thus, the door opened, and the lady in question entered the apartment with something which she said was for my breakfast. What blood was in my body, at this moment rushed into my cheeks. Alas! sir,' said she, observing my embarrassment, 'be not confused at seeing me thus employed; I am never happier than when I am administering to a sick soldier; it has been my occupation for years. I have been my poor husband's surgeon and nurse through seven campaigns; and God knows with what heartfelt joy I have many times torn my clothes to bind up the wounds of a brave gentleman in the field of battle.'

As she spoke thus, I raised my head, to contemplate this uncommon person. Her form I could not judge of; for she had on a kind of military coat, buckled round her waist with a soldier's belt; but her face wore every mark of an extraordinary character: alas! it still lives, and breathes, and speaks, in my imagination.

Every feature in the face I was now contemplating, was bold, and would have been masculine, were it not for a certain dimpled expression about the mouth, which sent forth innumerable graces over the whole countenance. She was a native of a Danish island in the West Indies; indeed, nothing could be less German than the cast of her features: her hair was nearly black, but hung upon one of the whitest necks in the world in glossy ringlets; and her long sweeping lashes shaded a pair of large lustrous eyes, the whites of which, though sparkling like crystal, were streaked with two or three bloodshot veins, in which there was such a dance of the spirits, as brought her whole soul into her countenance: her nose was very large and aquiline; her complexion a clear brown; the form of her face oval; and her forehead divided into compartments, by a large blue vein, which seemed to swell with the workings of the brain, and which gave such an intenseness to

her looks, as doubled the force of her meaning, and drew homage from every beholder. Her husband was a young man, every way worthy of her, and the truest soldier I ever beheld. His looks were full of spirit, tempered with an extraordinary gravity; his deportment solemn and taciturn; his make uncommonly robust; his face not handsome, but dignified and benevolent: he had little hair on his head, but profusion of it in his whiskers, under which, however, his mouth was well shaped and expressive, and his teeth delicately white. When on horseback and equipped for the field, he was the most martial figure in the whole army. His element was the camp; and he always seemed most possessed and collected in the moment of greatest peril. A thousand times have I seen him weep at the commonest tales of distress, and at such as the chances of battle were continually presenting before his eyes; and then in a minute after rush like a lion into the thick of the fight, whence he would often return with the enemy's colours in his hands.

We remained about a month under this kind roof; in the mean time I was perfectly cured of my wounds. One day, as we walked round the territory of our poor host, my companion and preserver thus addressed me:—'I am happy beyond measure, Eugenio, that our care has been so completely rewarded by the restoration of your health. You have doubtless seen enough of military life, to be heartily weary of such a course of danger and hardship. You have too, most certainly, dear friends, who wish for your return; and you have abilities to share in a more peaceful profession. I am a soldier, and nothing else: my home is the camp; and my wife, who is my only friend, attends me wherever I go. It is my determination to follow the army of the magnanimous King of Prussia, whose virtue I venerate, and who will reward my exertions in his service. My wife and myself always carry our fortune about with us. We have enough to enable you to travel homewards with comfort, and to re-ward

ward this poor cottager for his kind reception of us besides.' This was the first sensation, resembling joy, which I felt for a length of time. My colour however rose in my face, to think that so noble a friend should imagine me capable of deserting him. I strained him to my bosom with sincere delight, and assured him that nothing should induce me to leave him, while I thought my company would give him pleasure, or render him service. It was determined, then, between us, to set out in a fortnight for the Prussian army. In the mean time Matilda's health declined, and a cold which she had caught in the offices of humanity had fixed upon her lungs. It was with the greatest difficulty we persuaded her to remain where she was, till the conclusion of the next campaign. My friend left the greatest part of the little money he possessed, between Matilda, and the poor cottager and his wife; and, on the 15th of October, we bent our course towards the place where the Prussian troops, under the command of their illustrious monarch, lay encamped, disguised in the habits of peasants.

The valour of my friend was sufficiently known to procure him a welcome reception; and we were both in time to participate in the victory of Rosbach, which happened on the 5th of November following. It is unnecessary to relate the particulars of this battle: it is enough to say, that my companion and myself, the one pushed on by his mettle and courage, the other urged by desperation, drew the attention of the sovereign and his whole army upon us, in the conduct of that memorable day. We followed the fortunes of this gallant prince, through a course of splendid victories, till, at the siege of Olmutz, a fatal stop was put to our career.

We were taking too close a view of the enemy's works, when my friend received a mortal wound, and fell by my side. What my feelings were at such a crisis I shall leave you to imagine. He had applied his handkerchief to the wound; and, as I knelt down to receive his last breath, he laid upon me with a voice scarcely

audible this melancholy command: — 'Take from my bosom my handkerchief steeped in my blood; carry it to my wife—it is the token agreed upon between us; and, when she sees that, she will know I am dead, and, what is more, that I died an honourable death.—It will moreover save you, my dear friend, a painful recital. You will find my pocket-book about me: carry it likewise to her—and take care of that excellent woman.' With that he clasped my hand, and died without agony or distortion.

I will hurry over the succeeding events as briefly as possible; it will be to spare both you and myself. The body of my friend was bathed with unshed tears. Not a brother officer that approached it, but bestowed upon it this testimony of his sorrow; and the monarch himself was melted at the fatal intelligence. I stayed only to see him put into his grave with such military pompas became a brave soldier, and such honourable grief as belongs to a virtuous man; and, having obtained permission of my general, set out on my melancholy errand with the fatal gift in my bosom. It may be as well to mention, that, before I quitted the army of his Prussian majesty, I was complimented with the order of merit, and a present of three hundred ducats. No event that is worth a relation happened to me during my journey.

I passed over the scene of my first campaign near Hestenbeck, till I came to the miserable pollard on the heath where I first met my poor companion and preserver. Here a crowd of wretched ideas rushed into my mind. The wind seemed to sigh as it passed me, the night was dreary and starless, and every thing was just in the same order as when I leaned against this self-same tree, fainting with my wounds, and disposing myself for death. Again I seemed to hear the sound of horses' hoofs; again to see the lifted sabre: again I thought I heard, in the hollow breezes as they passed me, the comforting voice of my departed friend: till at length my fancy was so worked upon by my feelings, that I thought several times



times I saw his spirit move before me. I raised my eyes and beheld the same light gleaming from the cottage where the poor Matilda was left. My legs scarcely supported me till I reached the door.

How shall I describe the scene which succeeded! The fewest words will do it best. Matilda lay on her poor matress, the prey of that disorder which had seized her the week before our departure. She could hardly raise her languid head; but, when she did, it was to recognize me, with a look so piercingly tender, that I thought I must have died ere I could expose the fatal token. As I fell on my knees, to bathe her hand with my tears, the bloody handker-

chief dropped out of my bosom upon the bed. When I saw what was done, my eyes fastened tremblingly upon her's, where however I could perceive but little emotion. It was too late—her pulse was fluttering—her hand was convulsed—Surely death was never so kind as now. She drew, however, the handkerchief to her, and could just articulate—*Bury it with me!* Poor Matilda! It was indeed buried with thee, but not till it was as wet with my tears as it had been with thy husband's blood. Alas! how often has it been my fate to follow the virtuous to the grave!—but Heaven's will be done!—it will be reward enough, if one virtuous man shall weep over Eugenio's tomb.

#### THE KHALIF AND HIS VIZIR.

**H**AROON al Rasheed, Khalif of Bagdat, accompanied by Giafar, his favourite vizir, frequently walked through the streets and suburbs of the city by night in disguise. Thus he became acquainted with, and was able to correct, various irregularities, which would have escaped the vigilance of his inferior officers of justice.

One evening the light of the moon enabled him to discover beneath a portico, three men, whose dress and appearance bespoke them to be of middle rank, in close and serious conference. He approached them without being perceived, and heard them making the bitterest exclamations against their evil fortunes, which, each speaking of himself, declared to be without parallel. "Can any Mussulman," said the first, "be so great a wretch as I am? May the prophet never again favour his chosen tribe, if from morning till night I am not the victim of sorrow and disquietude. I have a neighbour whose only study is to perplex me in my dealings, to injure me in my reputation and property, and whom Alla seems to have inspired with extraordinary vigour of mind and body, for no other purposes than to counteract my prospects of interest, and designs of pleasure."—"Ah," said

the second, "your condition is indeed pitiable, but how much more so is mine? Your days alone are distressing to you; at night you can recline on your pillow, and find consolation in grateful slumber, forgetting your perplexities, your neighbour, and yourself; I, on the contrary, have no interval of peace; my days are harassing, and my nights worse. Alas! I have a wife who eternally torments me; at my business, my meals, nay even in my bed, her presence disturbs, and her tongue wounds, me; I live in incessant irritation, and have no hope of tranquillity but in death."—"Well," said the third, "I have patiently listened to you both, but am still convinced, that my causes of affliction are still more aggravating than either or than both of yours. I have an extravagant, profligate, worthless son; in spite of remonstrance or punishment, I have beheld him advance progressively from vice to vice, till I now see him a disgrace to human nature, and every hour am expecting that the vengeance of Mahomet, or the laws of our country, will tremendously overtake him." On this the three complainers bade each other adieu, and separated for the evening.

"Giafar," said the khalif to his favourite, "be it your care to find out who these three men are, and see that they

they attend my pleasure, in full divan to-morrow." Giafar obeyed his master; and the three trembling Moslems were conducted by the guards to the seraglio, where each, though ignorant of his imputed crime, expected to lose his head, or at least the bastinado. When the divan assembled, and the khalif on his throne was surrounded by the imams, the emeers, and the grandees of his court, with a loud voice he commanded the three miserables to be brought forth. "Friend," said Haroon al Rasheed to the first, "it seems thou sayest of thyself, that thy condition is eminently unfortunate; relate the causes of thy griefs to the wise men whom thou seest here before me." The man at first was inclined to equivocate, but the vizir pointing to the executioner, and affirming that the khalif had overheard part of their discourse, he declared that he indeed was of all men the most miserable, inasmuch as a wicked neighbour continually persecuted him. As soon as he had finished his narrative,—“Take that fellow,” said the khalif in an angry tone to his attendants, “and give him five hundred bastinadoes.” The imams, the emeers, and the grandees of the court, looked at each other in astonishment, but said nothing. The khalif, whose composure was not in the least disturbed, called for the second miserable; “Well, friend,” exclaimed Haroon al Rasheed, “and what sayest thou? thou art also, it appeareth, one whom Mahomet refuses to smile upon.” The man having witnessed his neighbour’s punishment, knew not how to act, and would willingly have held his peace; but being urged in a commanding voice, and fearing that even worse than the bastinado would attend his obstinacy, acknowledged, with a faltering voice, that his evil genius, in the shape of a termagant wife, made his days and nights insupportably vexatious. “Take that fellow,” said the khalif to his officers, “and give him instantly five hundred bastinadoes.” The imams, the emeers, and the grandees of the court, a second time looked at each other in

astonishment, but preserved the strictest silence. At the command of the Khalif, the third man stood forth. “Mussulman,” said Haroon al Rasheed, in somewhat of a less intimidating tone, “let me hear thy tale of sorrow.” “Commander of the faithful,” said the man, “I perceive that thou already knowest the sorrows which oppress my heart; nevertheless, at thy command, and without hesitation, I repeat, in the hearing of the court, that a profligate son has been the disgrace, of my manhood, and is now the torment of my age.” “Take that honest fellow,” said the khalif, “and immediately give him a thousand sequins.” A third time did the imams, the emeers, and the grandees of the court, look at each other with astonishment, without venturing to enquire the reason of the khalif’s most extraordinary decision.

Haroon al Rasheed, after looking upon them some time with complacency, rose from his throne, and thus expressed himself.—“Moslems, the judgment which I have this day pronounced appears to some of you harsh and severe, and to all of you inexplicable; hear then my motives, and confess the justice and beneficence of your prince. There is but one God, and Mahomet is prophet—shall Moslems indulge in bitter exclamations against Alla, for inconvenience and trouble, which their own exertions can remove? shall our holy prophet be wearied with tears and lamentations, which are only occasioned by his servants indolence and pusillanimity? The first man, whose case I heard, and whom I punished as he deserved, impeached the goodness of providence, and the justice of my government also, for an evil, which he himself could have effectually removed. He had a bad and unjust neighbour—granted—but was it not in his power to have changed his residence, and to have followed his occupation as a merchant in some other place? The second also, was alike intemperate in his complaints—but why arraign Alla, or his prophet, when he himself possessed the remedy of his suffering? He had a bad and worthless wife—but could he not have gone







*J. Chapman Sculp.*

RICHARD BROTHERS.

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gone with her immediately to the cadi, given her a writing of divorce, and sent her away? As to the third man, consult your own hearts, and confess my justice.—From an ungracious child who can fly? from that sorrow, what change of place, or what decision of law, can preserve us? it follows us abroad, it wounds us in solitude,

it disturbs our meals, and haunts our pillows. In this case pity is the slightest boon we can bestow, and liberality is no more than justice."

The imams, the emeers, and the grandees of the court, were no longer astonished, but confessed aloud the wisdom of the khalif.

### THE PROPHECIES OF RICHARD BROTHERS.—BOOK I.

THE very loud and unusual kind of thunder that was heard in the beginning of January, 1791, was the voice of the angel mentioned in the eighteenth chapter of the Revelation, proclaiming the judgment of God and the fall of Babylon the great; it was the loudest that ever was heard since man was created, and shook the whole earth every time the angel spoke; it roared through the streets, and made a noise over London like the falling of mountains of stones.

Many buildings were damaged at the time of this thunder, and many persons were frightened by it; the great flashes of lightning proceeded also from the angel, and was reflected from the brightness of his glory.

The Lord God was so exceeding angry at the time of the loud thunder, that he determined to leave his other judgments unfulfilled relative to London, and burn her immediately with fire from heaven: soon afterwards I was informed by revelation of what the thunder meant, and was commanded to go from London beyond the distance of eighteen miles. I had, *similar to the prophet Daniel at Babylon*, an attending angel to explain all the visions, and support me under the grief I was loaded with for its approaching fall.

The Lord God knowing that I loved him with all my heart, and had often resisted the calls of hunger and distress, rather than comply with customs that would offend him, pitied me; for I had beseeched him to let me inform the people of London of their danger, and try by all possible

means to save them; but was refused permission, because they would imprison and use me very ill for it.

In addition to all that God had promised and repeated by his angel to make me happy, he was now pleased to give me another proof of his unalterable regard, and convince me by it, that, *although he could not in justice to his recorded judgments spare London*, yet, for my sake he would shew mercy to some: and take care, that by sickness and other causes, to remove the persons I desired should be saved, to a sufficient distance beyond the limits to be destroyed and sunk. After thanking the Lord God, I mentioned several, both men and women, and called the remembrance of his mercy to others whose names I did not know, but pointed them out in my mind.

Among those I mentioned, was William Pultney, William Pitt, Gilbert Elliot, Charles Grey, the Earl of Buckinghamshire, the Marquis of Lansdown, the Earl of Chatham, Maitland, now called Earl of Lauderdale; Henry Phipps, for I remembered his brother to have done me an act of friendship; John Dalrymple, John Griffin Griffin, Alderman Pickett, *because that during his mayoralty he opposed by a public advertisement the frequency of taking oaths*; in doing so he honoured that all-remembering God, who will in due time as publicly honour him for it. Wilberforce, Bastard, Sheridan, Philip Stephens, Charles Fox: John Luke, a poor Quaker; Samuel Hood; the king and his family, for they were to be gathered into London; Ponsonby, for whom I conceived an esteem, from observing in his countenance openness

ness and honesty, and possessing as I thought a heart similar to my own, I was led to entreat for him: until last year I could assign no other reason for mentioning that name than what I have given; but the true one is, that as God had determined not only to keep in London the people then in it, but likewise to allow great multitudes to be drawn to it from all parts of the country, he would be found among the number to be destroyed; for which to prevent his death in such a place, the Lord God influenced me to regard him, that I might afterwards remember such a person and be mindful of his safety.

I am not in the least acquainted with the man I have mentioned, whom God was pleased to distinguish by so great a testimony of his regard, but although I am not, and our names are different, *he is—as well as myself*, descended from David, King of Israel. The Countess of Buckinghamshire, whom I am no more acquainted with than the stranger I mentioned before, is likewise descended from David, King of Israel; the family she is married into are also of the Hebrews, and are descended from Joseph the once president of Egypt.

There are many families of the same origin as those three I have named, made known to me by revelation, but I am forbid to mention any of them at present for public knowledge.

After entreating for the persons I have set down, and pointing from my mind to numbers besides whose names I did not know, I was, *to prepare me for the designation of God*, carried up to heaven in a vision, and saw on my right side at a small distance, a beautiful silver white bird in the shape of a dove, but a little larger; it was the Holy Ghost, and was the very same that descended on the head of my Blessed Saviour, when he came up from being baptized in the river Jordan; he kept between me and Satan, who was then revealed that I might witness it, and great power given him to visit the earth. The Lord God then spoke to me from the middle of a white shining cloud.

After this I was in a vision, *having the angel of God near me*, and saw Satan walking leisurely into London; his face had a smile, but under it his looks were sly, crafty, and deceitful. On the right side of his forehead were seven dark spots; he was dressed in white and scarlet robes.

Again I was in a vision, and saw London a scene of confusion; it was effected on a sudden; all the people were armed, and appeared quite furious: I was carried through the city in the spirit of God to see all things that where designed should come to pass, and be informed how quick they could be accomplished.

After this I was in a vision, and saw a large river run through London coloured with human blood.

Exceedingly unhappy for all that I saw, and which I knew would soon be fulfilled; I prayed and entreated the Lord God to give me one more instance of his mighty regard, *by sparing London and the great multitude in it*. I said, I acknowledge, O Lord my God, that the people do very wrong, but it is through compulsion and for want of knowing better.

The Lord God was so highly displeased that I should, after all his former kindness, strain his affection and entreat him to annul his *recorded judgment*, as to stop me, and in a voice of great sharpness and anger, say,—*They have my blessed gospel, and will not obey it*. The angel that was appointed to give me instruction forsook me in an instant on hearing this answer. I trembled for my life, and seemed to be another man; for I was afraid of being destroyed with the city. It was three days after this before the Lord God would be reconciled to hear my prayers, and speak to me with his former kindness.

In ten days after the three I was in a vision; and, being carried up to heaven, the Lord God spoke to me from the middle of a large white cloud, and said in a strong clear voice—All, All. I pardon London, and all the people in it, for your sake: there is no other man on earth that could stand before me to ask for so great a thing.

Had



Had London been destroyed in the year of 1791, the place where it stands would have formed a great bay, or inlet of the channel: all the land between Windsor and the Downs would have been sunk, including a distance of eighteen miles each side, but considerably more towards the sea-coast; it would be sunk to the depth of seventy fathoms, or four hundred and twenty feet, that no traces of the city might be ever found, or even so much as looked for.

21. And a mighty angel took up a stone *like a great millstone*, and cast it into the sea, saying, Thus with violence shall that great city Babylon be thrown down, *and shall be found no more at all.*

That all men of wisdom and discernment may understand, on reading the Revelation, that there are two cities mentioned in it *spiritually* under the names of Babylon the great, I will assist them by clearly marking out the distinction.

Rome, the spiritual Babylon mentioned in the seventeenth chapter, is described in the third verse, *to be away into the wilderness*; meaning, by the words into the wilderness, that the city is situated inland.

But London, the Spiritual Babylon also, mentioned in the eighteenth chapter, is described by St. John as *the greatest sea-port*, for ships, wealth, and commerce, in the world.

Read attentively the eighteenth chapter; and you will perceive described in it, the prodigious wealth, grandeur, and commerce, of London: then remember, that the very great thunder, and lightning, I have mentioned, was in the depth of winter, *an unusual time of year for the like*; but they were as St. John exactly describes them in the first and second verses. Meditate on these things, weigh them attentively in your mind, and all I have wrote besides; and the spirit of God, if you love wisdom, will enlighten your understanding to see, and will also strike you with a conviction of their truth.

*The following would have been the condition of England, which the Lord God shewed me in the month of July 1791, had his judgment of desolation on the world*

*been suddenly fulfilled at the appointed time in 1793.*

I was in a vision, and was carried away by the spirit of God to a field of young wheat, which was grown about four inches high from the ground: an elderly English woman stood by me; *she had no covering on her head*, but over her arms was an old black silk cloak; it was worn threadbare, and rent in many places.—While I was observing the dress and poverty of the woman, the wheat sprung up in an instant, and shot out to the size of full ears, the largest I ever saw in my life: astonished at such a sight, and wondering what it should mean, I stooped to feel some with my hand; when I had, *the woman looked down to me with a countenance expressive of great distress to implore my pity and assistance*, then turned her face away to the east, and afterwards looked up to heaven, as if she wanted rain and a cool wind.

After this I cast my eyes over the surface of the land; it was scorched to a dark-brown, and frightful to look at: I could see no grass in the meadows, and the bushes in the hedges were all burnt brown; *so great and mighty was the heat*. I could see no beasts in the fields, and the fowls of heaven were all flown away.

The judgment of desolation being suspended, is the reason that this vision of famine and distress is also. When it takes place, England, like the woman and her cloak, (*for she was an allusion to this country*), will be very poor, worn out, and rent in many places.

After this I was in a vision, and saw a large sword unsheathed in heaven: soon after, I saw a large cup full of red wine, and much froth on the top, lifted up, and held out to all nations.

*The Judgment of Desolation on all Nations.*

The thunder that was heard in the evening of the third of August 1793, was the voice of the angel mentioned in the nineteenth chapter of the Revelation standing in the sun.

17. And I saw an angel standing in the sun; and he cried with a loud voice, (*meaning the thunder*), saying to all the fowls that fly in the midst of heaven,

heaven, Come and gather yourselves together to the supper of the great God;

18. That ye may eat the flesh of kings, and the flesh of captains, and the flesh of mighty men, and the flesh of horses and of them that sit on them; and the flesh of all men, both free and bond, both small and great.

The dead will increase so fast and be in such prodigious numbers when this judgment takes place, that the living will not be sufficient to bury them, but will leave the bodies exposed to the fowls of heaven for meat.

The flashes of lightning which issued during the thunder, proceeded from the glory of the angel proclaiming the judgment of God, and resembled in colour the clear daylight.

The second thunder that gave notice of God's approaching judgment was on Wednesday evening the seventh of August 1793, as is mentioned in the seventh of the Revelation, and was the voice of the angel ascending from the east, having the seal of the living God.

The flashes of lightning, which issued during the time of this thunder, proceeded likewise from glory the of the angel, and resembled in colour fine amber.

The next and last thunder, if the judgment had not been suspended for my sake, would be on the eleventh of August following, and would have been, according to the sixteenth chapter of the Revelation, the fourth angel pouring out his vial on the sun.

The flashes of lightning during this thunder, which would continue many hours, would likewise proceed from the glory of the angel, and would be in strength and colour like the burning flame.

This thunder would be accompanied by a violent storm of large hail-stones, which, with the lightning, would kill multitudes of people, and destroy the harvest in many countries.

Soon after this thunder, the short time of four days only, the judgment of God on the world would begin to be fulfilled.—The winds would be suspended in the firmament, according to

the seventh chapter, that breathing might almost cease; the great body of heat that would immediately after be poured down from heaven on the earth, would be so fierce and powerful as to move the world, and kill every living thing, both man and beast, exposed under it in the open air.—The trees, bushes in the hedges, grass in the meadows, and what corn was left from the hail, would be cut off and destroyed by this great and mighty heat.—Most of the ships would be destroyed at sea, and all the fish near the surface killed.—Millions of the human race would die in all nations from this burning heat, and the many plagues it would produce.

The nineteenth, seventh, sixteenth, sixth, eighth, and fourteenth, chapters, mean the same time, the same things, and are as one chapter to fulfil the judgment of God.

The fifteenth of August 1793, was the time appointed by the Lord God to fulfil the parts of the Revelation I have mentioned, and punish the world with desolation; but from his great mercy and regard for me, that I may be esteemed in this country, and by all others when I am revealed, suspended his judgment for a time:—it hangs however over all nations.

Look at the age of the world, read attentively the chapters I have mentioned, with what I have wrote besides;—and you will discover in your own breast a light, to see and believe by.

That light I mean which is often called a certain something, an internal monitor, that applauds man for courting wisdom,—for being just, and doing good; but that never fails to reproach him for embracing folly, and doing evil:—it is indeed no other than the spirit of the living God.

All the prophecies given in visions from God are concealed from the knowledge of man by mysterious allusions until the proper time, and the appointed person for them to be revealed to. For it is not in the cunning of any one man,—even assisted by the wisdom of all the rest on earth, to search out the deep secrets of God, or with truth to unfold the meaning of his visions; they are wonderful, they



they cannot be discovered until God himself pleases to remove the covering of secrecy, and, through an appointed person, blesses the world with a knowledge of their true meaning.

The fulfilling of the judgments of God, however destructive they may prove to the governments and nations which they are directed against, are not allowed to affect my personal safety, nor operate in the least to my prejudice: for the certainty of my elevation to the greatest *principality* that ever will be in the world, cannot be prevented by the rise or fall of any human power on earth; because it is the repeated covenant of God to my forefathers, and his sacred promise now by revelation to myself.

The obscurity of David was no objection with a discerning God to make him the monarch of Israel, and afterwards promise the succession to his family for ever; neither is mine now to his fulfilling that promise, and holding me up to the world as the visible governor of the Jews. For all the works of God are wonderful, and very far exceed the capacity of man to know where they begin, how they are directed, on whom or which way they will end: I that have more knowledge of them, and of futurity, revealed to me, than any other under the whole heaven, observe the operation of every new one with more amazement than the former.

Therefore my present poverty is no obstacle to my future elevation, neither is it of much concern to myself; for the time of my being revealed with power from heaven is nigh; when God, to manifest his regard, will give me favour with many, and influence all the people of London to help me.

I am the prophet that will be revealed to the Jews to order their departure from all nations to go to the land of Israel, their own country, in a similar manner to Moses in Egypt, but with additional power.

I was an officer in the English navy, and necessarily so, although I did not know it, that the judgment of God on David, King of Israel, might be fulfilled, which was, that the sword should never depart from his house.

It is fifteen hundred years since my family was separated from the Jews, and lost all knowledge of its origin; the last on record in the scripture, is James: thirteenth chap. fifty-fifth ver. of St. Mathew. *Told me by Revelation.*

The government of the Jewish nation will, *under the Lord God*, be committed to me, that the everlasting covenant from him to David may be manifested in the visible prince and governor of the Jews.

#### DESTRUCTION OF ROME.

Rev. xvii. 1. And there came one of the seven angels, which had the seven vials, and talked with me, saying to me, Come hither, and I will shew thee the judgment of the great whore, (*meaning Rome*,) that sits upon many waters, (*meaning her government over many nations*.)

2. With whom the kings of the earth have committed fornication, (*meaning, they have been seduced to imitate her evil practices*,) and the inhabitants of the earth have been drunk with the wine of her fornication, (*meaning they are likewise deluded to drink deep to a state of insensibility from her vain doctrines*.)

A remarkable instance of this was very lately practised, and really fulfilled, at Naples; which, although governed by a king, is notwithstanding in the lee of Rome, and about sixty miles distant. In consequence of a violent eruption of fire out of Mount Vesuvius, which is but a few miles from Naples, the similitude of a human head, called St. Januarius's, was carried in procession, lifted up, and held out, fully believing that by honouring the saint, through even in this small part of his image, he himself in heaven would be influenced to intercede with God to stop the great rivers of fire which issued from the burning mountain.

For a people, calling themselves Christians, which have had the revelation so long to warn, and the blessed gospel so long to instruct, them, to embrace at this late hour of the world such an act of superstition and delusion, is indeed astonishing. But it is a part of that great chain of errors—

still

still continued, which the Roman government at a former period most wickedly bound its people in all nations, but the clergy in particular, with; and which is plainly foretold by St. Paul, in the fourth chapter of his first Epistle to Timothy. V. 1. Now the Spirit (*which is the Holy Ghost*) speaks expressly that in the latter times some shall depart from the faith, giving heed to seducing spirits and doctrines of devils:

2. Speaking lies in hypocrisy, having their consciences seared with a hot iron:

3. Forbidding to marry, &c.

The papal authority does not allow its clergy to marry, from a belief that a man, by living in a state of separation from a woman, is better qualified to fulfil the duties of a priest more acceptably to God, than a man that is a husband and father. Such doctrine is an evident proof to every discerning person that there is great departure or falling away from the true faith: to continue then in the practice, after it is explained and made public by divine command, is preferring darkness to light, the doctrines of devils to the good words of God: it is giving a willing heed to the seducing spirits that St. Paul alludes to. Christ, the saviour of the world, who left his gospel of the kingdom of peace for the direction of all men, never made any such distinction: for some of his apostles were married, and some were not: and he, as God the Father in the beginning of the creation blessed Adam and Eve, saying to them, "Be fruitful and multiply, and replenish the earth, &c." repeating the same after the flood to Noah and his sons: he never ordered, nor never intended, the cruel imposition of celibacy on his immediate servants—or any other description of men.

It is also an abomination to him, because inconsistent with the design of his creation, that any description of women under the vain pretence of what is called religion and piety—of leading a more holy life—of serving God better, should be shut up for ever in monasteries—inhumanly deprived of becoming wives and mothers.

I am commanded to say, it is grievous and sorrowful to the Lord God to see nations which acknowledge him, and which have the whole Scripture to inform them of his will, paying a blind—an idolatrous obedience to human ordinances, supported by bad oaths, and sinful vows, in direct opposition to what he designs, and what in the beginning the covenant of his blessing prescribes.

Rev. xvii. 3. So he carried me away in the spirit into the wilderness, (*meaning into the country, as if far inland from the sea,*) where I saw a woman (*meaning Rome*) sit upon a scarlet-coloured beast (*meaning the pope*) full of the names of blasphemy, (*his titles,*) having seven heads (*alluding to the seven hills on which the city stands*) and ten horns, (*meaning the cardinals.*)

5. And upon her forehead was a name written, Mystery—Babylon the Great, the Mother of Harlots (*meaning that she as a mother stood exposed for corrupting with her doctrines many cities to the condition of harlots*) and Abominations of the Earth.

This Babylon the Great, this Mother of Harlots, means Rome; but is spiritually called by those names as an allusion to her excess of guilt as a Babylon, and a corruption of doctrine as a mother.

St. John mentions in the third verse, that he was carried away into the wilderness to see Rome; meaning by the words *into the wilderness*, that Rome the city he goes to look at is situated inland: this description is given to make a distinction between it and London the maritime Babylon, full of ships, seamen, and commerce, mentioned in the eighteenth chapter.

The scarlet-coloured beast full of names of blasphemy, with seven heads and ten horns, means the pope—in this chapter only, and not in any other part of the Revelation, is the pope alluded to under any name or under any signification whatever: neither is Rome but in one part, which is the sixteenth chapter and middle of the nineteenth verse. The pope in addition to his many names of blasphemy, likewise assumes the powers and prerogatives of God, calling himself,



himself, instead of his blessed Saviour, the supreme head of the church: as such he pretends, for it is only pretension to deceive the ignorant, to be infallible, and to pardon the commission of sin in others: again, as if sanctified by the Holy Ghost, and commanded immediately from God to impart freely his mighty blessing and his mighty spirit to whom he pleases, he ordains, as it is called, bishops, laying hands on them, and saying at the same time, Receive the Holy Ghost; he likewise claims a pre-eminence of holiness in his person, and obedience to Christ in his actions, above all the rest of mankind.

For a man to attempt to do what the true Christ only can, is attempting an imposition, and justly constitutes a false Christ. For a man to kneel down to a man to receive the Holy Ghost, and then going forth by the authority of this false Christ—teaching and preaching under the name of the true Christ, but in opposition to his commands—deluded by an opinion that he is spiritual because his human maker imposed on him to believe so, when in reality he is not, constitutes a false prophet.

It is for blasphemy, idolatry, deceit, teaching rebellion against Christ, and for being a shedder of blood by war, that the pope is called, in the Revelation from God, a scarlet-coloured beast; under that dreadful name, though knelt to as a divine, and exalted to the height of heaven by titles, *he sinks down into perdition*—he is a fallen man, and is adjudged by that already testimony of St. John—to suffer the punishment of everlasting fire.

The popes having rose to what they are, and established their power by the sword, is the reason that God mentions in this part of the Revelation to St. John, the beast, or papal authority, to ascend from the bottomless pit: in the beginning they were great military princes, and governed with large armies; but latterly their power became weak, and their consequence small; yet notwithstanding, the vain titles, pageantry, and military parade, is still preserved and closely embraced by the present.

2

The pope and cardinals, by their teaching, practice, and government, are in a state of opposition to Christ; that is, they practise and encourage, to support their form of government, swearing, and war: the two principal things which Christ, above all others, prohibits in the most positive terms. It is for this opposition to his commands in the gospel, that they are represented as making war against him; they are permitted through the patient suffering of God to do so, until he can bear no longer with their rebellion, when, to fulfil this prophecy and his decreed judgment, they will be entirely cut off.

As a man cannot in justice be considered as a servant any longer than while he obeys the commands of his master—so neither can a man in truth be regarded as a Christian any longer than while he obeys the commands of Christ.

Hear therefore, all nations, what the Lord God commands me to write, and be warned by it, that, as a master is compelled to withdraw his allowance of food and discharge from his house a servant that will not obey him, so will he withdraw his loving kindness of peace, and in anger remove from the face of the earth, that man or family, city or nation, that will only acknowledge Christ in word, but in practice refuse to obey his commands.

The cardinals will disagree and quarrel, then Rome will be convulsed by parties, and plundered alternately by each; (*which means eating her flesh*;) in doing this, they will set the city on fire and almost destroy it. In due time after this, the latter part of the nineteenth verse, in the sixteenth chapter, will be fulfilled on Rome—spiritually Babylon—the capital of Italy; when by a mighty earthquake, the city with the ground it stands on will be lifted up—shook violently to pieces—and utterly overthrown.

The cardinals will continue in subjection to the pope, and agree in their measures of government, assisting him also with their advice and power until the time already determined is expired,

expired, which is nearly so now; that done, the minds of the people will be changed, and another spirit will be given them, to fulfil the judgment of God according to this prophecy.

A knowledge of the Scripture, the prophecies I have mentioned, and all that I have wrote besides, have been communicated to me through visions and revelations from the Lord God: the Prophet Daniel, and St. John the Apostle, were instructed in the same manner to write what they have.

It is by the saving of multitudes;—by revealing, not only a true inter-

pretation of the prophecies, but also a knowledge of the times, and those secret parts of the scripture which are not made known to any other man under heaven, that the Lord God begins with announcing to the world a knowledge of his mighty judgments, *the return of his former mercy to the Hebrews*, their speedy restoration to Jerusalem, and the rise of a favourite family. RICHARD BROTHERS.

London, No. 57, Paddington-street, 20th of the month called Sept. 1794.

(To be continued.)

#### CHARLEMAGNE RECEIVING THE AMBASSADORS OF NICEPHORUS, EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

**C**HARLEMAGNE, or Charles I. became King of France by succession, and Emperor of the West by conquest in 800. Charlemagne was as illustrious in the cabinet as in the field; and, though he could not write his name, was the patron of men of letters, the restorer of learning, and a wise legislator. He made the nation free, and restored his subjects their rights; which laid the foundation of his own greatness and that of the French nation. His military exploits will be a subject of admiration for ages yet to come. To follow him through his various victories is not our business at present; that task we have performed to the best of our ability in the annexed History of France. Perhaps the most striking incident of his life, and which most shews the amiableness of his character, was the reception he gave to the ambassadors of Nicephorus. Beloved by his subjects, and respected by foreigners, he went to Rome in triumph, where he was crowned Emperor of the West, in the year 800.

Nicephorus, Emperor of the East, wishing to gain the friendship of so great and powerful a prince, sent ambassadors to him to settle a treaty. Charlemagne had some cause to com-

plain of Nicephorus; for his ambassadors, among whom was Bishop Hetton, had been insulted at the court of Constantinople on a former occasion. On the arrival of the ambassadors of Nicephorus, Charlemagne was in Alsace, at the palace of Seltz. The king was determined to surprise and astonish them. When they were introduced, the monarch was on his throne of state, and resting his arm on Bishop Hetton's shoulder, with whom he was discoursing with the greatest condescension and familiarity. The ambassadors of Nicephorus, dreading the anger of Charlemagne, were struck with dismay, and prostrated themselves at his feet. But the magnanimous king raised them from the ground with his own hand, saying, "Hetton forgives you; and, at his request, I shall forget what is past."—Surprise, mingled with satisfaction, was visible on the countenances of all the court on this trait of condescension. A treaty was moreover concluded, by which it was agreed, that both Charlemagne and Nicephorus should assume the title of the August; and that the former should be styled Emperor of the West, and the latter Emperor of the East.—Charlemagne died in 814, and was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle.



## SELECT POETRY.

ON THE NUPTIALS OF THEIR ROYAL HIGHNESSES THE  
PRINCE AND PRINCESS OF WALES.

FROM DIEDIN'S ODE.

DESCEND, and consecrate, ye sacred  
Nine,

The nuptial rites of George and Caroline:  
Nor courted, nor invoc'd, but wing your  
way,

Yourself inspir'd, my festive theme obey!

And ye, celestials, in your roseate bowers,  
Who play with smiles, and count the  
dancing hours,

Strike the loud spheres!

Your voices raise,

And charm their captur'd ears,  
Proclaiming Caroline's unequal'd praise.  
Her wisdom bid Minerva fear;

Bid her, who young Endymion embrac'd,  
Blush, and resign the name of chaste;

Tell lovely Venus, and the dimpled Gra-  
ces

To yield to truth, and own,  
Though sweet and beautiful as are their  
faces,

Her face perfection boasts alone.  
All, all, while sitting in celestial state,  
That which they cannot equal, bid them  
wonder at,

And, as your mandate they attend,  
And from the silver clouds astonish'd bend,  
Bid them behold, with a benignant smile,  
The rapture that pervades Great Britain's  
happy isle.

Heav'n heard old Jove by Styx declare,  
He ne'er saw mortal half so fair;

While Juno own'd he'd ne'er known strife,  
Could she, like her, have prov'd a wife;

Minerva said, proud to extol her,  
She'd always been her aptest scholar;

Again her mirror and again  
Venus regarded, but in vain;

Then rubb'd the surface, 'twas not right,  
At last she broke it out of spite.

One call'd for nectar, "Go and sip,"  
Cry'd Hebe, "nectar from her lip;"

Mars proudly said, he saw a race  
Of future heroes in her face;

Whilerough-hewn Neptune, smiling, swore  
Ne'er had his billows borne before

A lovelier Venus to a happier shore;

Where admiration, that had hush'd the  
crowd,

Yielded to acclamations warm and loud;  
For lo! a sight that ever shall impart

Strong, strong emotions to each British  
heart!

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Scarce had the Princess, on the peopled  
strand,

Admir'd the beauty of fair freedom's land,  
When, in majestic grandeur, stood re-  
veal'd,

Bright as her crest, refulgent as her shield,  
Britannia!—with a tender zeal impress'd,

As tutelary guardian of her lovely guest;  
And oh! ineffable was the angelic smile

That bid the glorious stranger welcome to  
her isle.

Nor ended there

Those shouts that rent the air;

But as distinctions, honours, on the way,  
Still courted some solicitous delay,

Their longing eyes pursu'd the splendid  
train,

Nor lost them till they reach'd fair Hy-  
men's fane,

Whom thus they address, in fervent  
prayer:

Sacred Hymen, on this night,

Thy torch with fire celestial light;

And, in thy smiling crown of flowers,

Symbol this pair's delicious hours.

Let Flora's rose the wreath adorn,

Depriv'd of each intruding thorn;

Let the fond heliotrope be there;

And Venus' myrtle fresh and fair;

Mars, for his laurel, next invoke,

And blend it with the British oak;

So bliss, fame, constancy, shall prove

Their lot bestow'd by thee and love.

So shall the people join in loud acclaim,

To tell the universe the prophecy of

Fame.

Ever on this isle, the solar ray,

Benignant eye of favouring heaven,

Shall beam to consecrate the day,

That saw a Brunswick to a Brunswick  
given.

Swell every voice, beat every heart,

All in the general bliss bear part;

While the loud trumpets' notes proclaim

Fate's fiat, by the mouth of Fame.

"In other states, while rule and power

That strut the pageant of an hour,

Treason destroys, and time absorbs,

Like circling planets in their orbs:

Here shall a happy people's joys

Revolve in one just equipoise,

While time and virtue shall endure,

Their honour safe, their rights secure,

Confirm'd to this blest race alone,

BRITAIN'S hereditary throne."

E

PETITION

## PETITION OF LOVE.

**S**OLDIER, resting on thy spear,  
Who in watch the time dost wear;  
Fain thy hero would I see,  
Bring him, soldier, here to me,  
I have need of his relief,  
To assuage my mighty grief:  
Fain thy hero would I see,  
Bring him, soldier, here to me.

Thy charms of beauty, glory, love,  
To sing from place to place I rove;  
Nothing like them my heart can move,  
The charms of beauty, glory, love.  
For a moment till 'tis day,  
Within thy ramparts let me stay;  
The charms of beauty, glory, love,  
To sing from place to place I rove.

To the brave a tender tie  
Binds me in soft amity;  
This tender and fraternal tie,  
Soars above humanity;  
They who wake my silver lyre  
May to endless fame aspire:  
To the brave the sweetest tie,  
Binds me in soft amity.

## POOR OLD ENGLAND;

## Or the TAX upon HAIR-POWDER.

From Dibdin's "Great News."

**H**AVE you heard of the tax that such  
Strange consternation  
Has spread through old England, that  
poor helpless nation?

'Tis hair-powder! oh downfall of guinea-  
less heads,  
Who unlicens'd will all look like so many  
crows.

Hark the friseurs exclaim as distracted  
they roam,

'Mongst the knights of the curling-irons  
chaos is come.

Sing and cry, cry and sing, mingle mis'ry  
and fun;

England's never so happy as when she's  
undone.

The hunks who can boast but a single  
colt's-tooth,

Who weigh'd down with age, apes the  
fopp'ries of youth,

Says to some dulcinea, "My hairs are all  
grey,

So I can't be tax'd." Cries the siren,  
"Nay, nay,

Not all grey—they're half black."—"Ah!  
you dear coaxing ninny!

Well I'll purchase a license, and pay half  
a guinea."

Sing and cry, &c.

Then the knights of the rainbow: "I  
say, my lord duke,  
On hair-powder a tax—take the news  
there, and look—

I forgot you can't read—the ridiculous  
fusts!

Why, what are such trifles as guineas to  
us?

Nunky pays for we footmen; I'll sport a  
spruce nab;

And, old Quibus, come down for't, or  
damme I'll blab."

Sing and cry, &c.

But the drollest expedient was that of a  
fop,

A man-milliner, where there were four  
in a shop.

"I've hit upon't, demme! as lawyers  
coach call,

And drive four for a shilling to Westmin-  
ster-hall,

Five-and-threepence a-piece, lads, ad-  
vance! hand it out:

We'll purchase a license, and lend it  
about!"

Sing and cry, &c.

Then the tea-table see. "I declare I'm  
quite vex'd,"

Cries out old Lady Pyebald; "our teeth  
they'll tax next:

I should trick 'em at that, though; I  
have but one tooth."—

"'Tis quite right," cries a beauty all  
sweetness and truth;

"Take the tax, take each feather that  
plays on my head;

I shall dress the more plain—but the poor  
will get bread."

Sing and cry, &c.

Then, my countrymen, emulate this char-  
ming fair;

Deck the heart, nor regret how neglected  
the hair.

While friseurs, and footmen, and fops,  
cry peccavi,

We shall all dress more decent, and they'll  
man the navy.

Let our rulers go on then, of honour se-  
cure;

Each tax upon luxury's bread for the  
poor.

Then hold all this croaking and grumbling  
as fun;

By such nonsense old England can ne'er  
be undone.

*Epitaph on a beautiful and virtuous  
Young Lady.*

**S**LEEP soft in dust, wait the Almight-  
ty's will,

Then rise unchang'd, and be an angel still.

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, April 6.

*Copy of a Dispatch received from Vice-admiral Hotham, Commander of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Mediterranean.*

Britannia, at Sea, March 16.

SIR,

ON the 8th instant, being then in Leghorn road, I received an express from Genoa, that the French fleet, consisting of fifteen sail of the line and three frigates, were seen two days before off the Isle of Marguerite; I immediately caused the squadron to be unmoored, and at day-break the following morning we put to sea with a strong breeze from the east-north-east, and shaped my course for Corsica, lest their destination should be against that island, and dispatched the Tarleton brig to St. Fiorenzo, with orders for the Berwick to join me with all possible expedition off Cape Corfe; but, in the night, she returned to me with the unwelcome intelligence of that ship's having been captured two days before by the enemy's fleet.

I shall not enter into a detail of our proceedings until the two squadrons got sight of each other, and the prospect opened of forcing the enemy to action; every movement which was made being directed to that object.

The two squadrons did not get sight of each other till the 12th, when that of the enemy was discovered to windward. On the morning following, without any apparent intention of coming down, the signal was made for a general chase, in the course of which, the weather being squally, and blowing very fresh, we discovered one of their line-of-battle ships to be without her top-masts, which afforded to Capt. Freemantle, of the Inconstant frigate, (who was then far advanced on the chase) an opportunity of shewing a good proof of British enterprize, by his attacking, raking, and harrassing, her till the coming up of the Agamemnon, when he was most ably seconded by Capt. Nelson, who did her so much damage as to disable her from putting herself again to rights; but they were at this time so far detached from our own fleet, that they were obliged to quit her, as other ships of the enemy were coming up to her assistance, by one of which she was soon afterwards taken in tow.

Finding our heavy ships did not gain upon the enemy during the chase, I made the signal for the squadron to form upon the larboard line of bearing; and at daylight on the 14th, being about six or seven leagues to the south-west of Genoa, we observed the enemy's disabled ship, with the one that had her in tow, to be so far to leeward, and separated from their own squadron, as to afford a probable chance of our cutting them off. The opportunity was not lost; all sail was made to effect that purpose, which reduced the enemy to the alternative of abandoning those ships, or coming to battle.

Although the latter did not appear to be their choice, they yet came down (on the contrary tack to which we were) with a view of supporting them; but the Captain and Bedford, whose signals were made to attack the enemy's disabled ship and her companion, were so far advanced, and so closely supported by the other ships of our van, as to cut them off effectually from any assistance that could be given them: the conflict ended in the enemy's abandoning them, and firing upon our line as they passed with a light air of wind.

The two ships that fell proved to be the Ca Ira (formerly the Couronne) of 80 guns, and the Censeur of 74.

Our van ships suffered so much by this attack, particularly the Illustrious and Courageux (having each lost their main and mizen masts), that it became impossible for any thing further to be effected; and I have good reason to hope, from the enemy's steering to the westward, that, whatever might have been their design, their intentions are for the present frustrated.

The French fleet were loaded with troops; the Ca Ira having 1300 men on-board, and the Censeur 1000, of whom, by their obstinate defence, they lost in killed and wounded between three and four hundred men.

The efforts of our squadron, to second my wishes for an immediate and effectual attack upon the enemy, were so spirited and unanimous, that I feel peculiar satisfaction in offering to their lordships my cordial commendation of all ranks collectively. It is difficult to specify particular desert, where emulation was common to all, and zeal for his majesty's service the general description of the fleet. It is, however, an act of justice to express the sense I entertain of the services of

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Captain

Captain Holloway of his majesty's ship Britannia.

I have to lament the loss of Captain Littleton, of the Berwick, who was unfortunately killed the morning of the ship's being captured; by which misfortune his majesty has lost a most valuable and experienced officer, and he has left a widow and four small children.

I am, &c.

W. HOTHAM.

P. S. I am now going with the prizes to Saint Fiorenzo, but doubt much whether it will be possible to get them in, as they are dismasted, greatly shattered, and very leaky, particularly the Ca Ira.

*Return of Officers and Men killed and wounded on-board the different Ships of Vice-admiral Hotham's Squadron.*

Britannia, 1 seaman killed, 13 ditto wounded.

Princess Royal, 3 seamen killed, 7 ditto wounded, 1 marine or soldier wounded.

St. George, third lieutenant Rt. Honeyman wounded, 4 seamen killed, 12 ditto wounded.

Windsor Castle, first lieutenant Thomas Hawker wounded, 5 seamen killed, 28 ditto wounded, 1 marine or soldier killed, 2 ditto wounded.

Captain, Mr. William Hunter (master) and first lieutenant Wilton Rathbone wounded, 3 seamen killed, 17 ditto wounded.

Fortitude, 1 seaman killed, 4 ditto wounded.

Illustrious, Mr. Samuel Moore (midshipman) wounded, 15 seamen killed, 68 ditto wounded, 5 marines or soldiers killed, 1 ditto wounded.

Egmont, 7 seamen killed, 21 ditto wounded.

Terrible, 6 seamen wounded.

Courageux, Mr. William Coleman (midshipman) killed, Mr. John Blackburn (master) wounded, 8 seamen killed, 21 ditto wounded, 6 marines or soldiers killed, 11 ditto wounded.

Bedford, first lieutenant Miles wounded, 6 seamen killed, 14 ditto wounded, 1 marine or soldier killed, 3 ditto wounded.

Agamemnon, Mr. John Wilson (master) and 12 seamen wounded.

Diadem, 3 seamen killed, 7 ditto wounded.

Inconstant, 3 seamen killed, 14 ditto wounded.

Tancredi, 3 seamen killed, 3 ditto wounded.

Total, 75 killed, 280 wounded.

### ORDER of BATTLE.

#### VAN DIVISION—ADM. GOODALL.

	Guns.	Men.
1 Captain,	74	590
2 Bedford,	74	590
3 Tancredi,	74	600
4 Princess Royal,	90	760
5 Agamemnon,	64	491
<i>Frigates.</i> —Repeating frigate, Lowestoffe, Tarleton, Pylade, Poulette, and Minerva.		

#### CENTRE DIVISION.—ADM. HOTHAM.

6 Illustrious,	74	590
7 Courageux,	74	640
8 Britannia,	100	859
9 Egmont,	74	590
10 Windsor Castle,	90	755
Inconstant, and Meleager, to repeat signals.		

#### REAR DIVISION.—SIR H. PARKER.

11 Diadem,	64	491
12 St. George,	90	760
13 Terrible,	74	590
14 Fortitude,	74	590
Romulus repeating frigate. Fox cutter.		

*The French Fleet, and Men on-board, were as follow.*

Le Sans Culotte,	120	2000
Le Ca Ira, (taken)	80	1300
Le Victoire,	80	1300
Le Tonnant,	80	1300
Le Guerrier,	74	1000
Le Conquerant,	74	1000
Le Mercure,	74	1000
Le Barras,	74	1000
Le Genereux,	74	1000
Le Heureux,	74	1000
Le Dequesne,	74	1000
Le Censeur, (taken)	74	1000
Le Timoleon,	74	1000
L'Alcide,	74	1000
Le Souverain,	74	1000
La Minerve,	40	300
La Themise,	40	300
L'Alceste,	32	250
La Vestale,	32	250
Hazard,	20	240
Scout,	18	240

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, April 18.

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-admiral Colpoys to Mr. Nepean, dated on-board his Majesty's Ship London, at Spithead, the 16th of April, 1795.*

Please to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty of my arrival here with his majesty's ships under my command:

That on the 29th of March Le Jean Bart, a French corvette, of 20 guns and 120 men, bound to Brest, was captured by his majesty's ships Cerberus and Santa Margareta; she had been charged with



With dispatches from the French minister in America:

That on the 13th of March the Robust re-captured the Caldicott Castle, of Chepstow, from Barcelona, bound to Guernsey; she was taken on the 18th of March, off Cape St. Vincent's, by six French ships of the line, two frigates, and a corvette:

That on the 10th instant we discovered and gave chase to three French frigates, which soon shaped different courses. I made the signal for the Hannibal and Robust to follow the two which pointed most to the westward. The Astrea, Lord Hen. Powlett, with his accustomed promptitude and attention, kept after the largest and seemingly best goer of the three, with which he closed about ten o'clock at night, and obliged her to surrender, after a well-fought action of 58 minutes, which does great credit to his lordship's good conduct, as well as the discipline of his officers and ship's company. The particulars I transmit in a copy of his lordship's letter to me, which accompanies this.

P. S. The Robust joined me off the Isle of Wight. Captain Thornborough reports that La Gentille, of 40 guns, was taken on Saturday last by the Hannibal, but that La Fraternité escaped.

*Copy of a Letter from Lord Henry Powlett, Captain of his Majesty's Ship Astrea, to Rear-admiral Colpoys, dated at Sea, the 11th of April, 1795, lat. 49 deg. 30 min. N. long. 10. 46. W.*

SIR,

In obedience to your signal from the London yesterday morning, I gave chase to the north-west, and at ten o'clock at night came up with and engaged La Gloire, French national frigate, mounting 26 twelve-pounders on the main deck, 10 six-pounders, and 4 thirty-six-pounder carronades on the quarter-deck, and two six-pounders on the fore-castle; having on-board 275 men. After a close action of 58 minutes she struck.

It is very satisfactory to me to be able to say, that I had no person killed, and only eight men wounded; three of them, I am sorry to add, are in some danger. I am also very sorry to say that the slaughter on-board the enemy has been very considerable; the killed and wounded, from the best accounts I have been able to collect, amounting to forty: among the latter, is her captain, Citizen Beens, who received a contusion on the head. He seems to be an able, humane, and intelligent, officer.

I have sent Mr. Talbot, my first lieutenant, on-board La Gloire, which will I

hope meet your approbation. I must not omit to mention the just sense I entertain of his services and good conduct upon this occasion; and it gives me the greatest pleasure to add, that the conduct of the officers and ship's company in general afforded me particular satisfaction.

The two frigates, after which you dispatched his majesty's ships Hannibal and Robust are exactly of the same force with La Gloire. They had been three weeks out from Brest, and had made but one capture, a small Spanish brig. I am, &c,  
H. POWLETT.

## NATIONAL CONVENTION,

PARIS, April 10.

Reubell spoke in the name of the committee of public welfare.

"You have now before your eyes (said he) the fruits of your principles and wisdom. The governments which had sworn the ruin of the republic, governed by tyrants and factious men, are now eager to demand peace, since they have seen the wisdom and the principles which direct the convention.

"The committee of public welfare has followed your intentions of procuring a partial peace, and offers for your ratification that which is concluded with the King of Prussia. We have not forgot for an instant that if the wishes of the people were for a glorious peace, it behoved us likewise to bind in their interest a power not likely to disengage itself from us.

"You will judge if your committee has obtained its object. The principal point was to re-establish the exterior relations; and, to heighten these, we believe it will be useful to have for our ally a power enjoying a preponderance in the empire, which may turn to the advantage of the republic.

"All accounts inform us, that the Prussian nation has not ceased, during the whole war, to give the French nation proofs of esteem.—The indefatigable zeal of the envoy of the French republic in Switzerland has surmounted all obstacles! he has acted with that candour which carries conviction to every mind.

"This peace is not the only one which at present occupies the attention of your committee. Continue, representatives, to display principles of wisdom, and soon shall all the projects of the malevolent be overfet. French people, remain insensible to their perfidious insinuations. A moment of precipitation will ruin you; soon shall your welfare be assured."

Reubell next read the powers given by the King of Prussia to Baron Hardenberg, for

for the conclusion of a peace. He next presented the treaty, consisting of twelve articles, concluded on the 16th Germinal (April 5) at Basle, between Citizen Barthélemy and Baron Hardenberg.

*TREATY of PEACE between*  
**FRANCE and PRUSSIA.**

I. There shall be peace, amity, and good understanding, between the French republic and the King of Prussia, considered both as such, and as Elector of Brandenburg, and Co-estate of the German Empire.

II. In consequence, all hostilities between the two contracting powers shall cease, from the day of the ratification of the present treaty, and neither of them, from the same period, shall furnish against the other, in any quality or under any title whatsoever, any succours or contingent, in men, horses, provisions, money, warlike stores, or otherwise.

III. Neither of the contracting powers shall grant a passage through its territory to the troops of the enemies of the other.

IV. The troops of the French republic shall evacuate, within fifteen days after the ratification of the present treaty, the parts of the Prussian states they may occupy on the right bank of the Rhine.

The contributions, deliveries, supplies, and services of war, shall cease entirely within fifteen days after the signature of this treaty.

All arrearages due at that period, as well as billets and promises given or made in that respect, shall be null. Whatever shall be taken or received after the period aforesaid, shall be restored gratuitously, or paid for in ready money.

V. The troops of the French republic shall continue to occupy the parts of the states of the King of Prussia situated on the left bank of the Rhine. All definitive arrangement with respect to these provinces shall be deferred till the general pacification with the German empire.

VI. Until a treaty of commerce between the two contracting powers shall be made, all the commercial communications and relations between France and the Prussian states shall be established on the footing upon which they were before the present war.

VII. As the dispositions of Article VI. cannot have their full effect, but in proportion as liberty of commerce shall be re-established for all the north of Germany, the two contracting powers shall take measures for removing from it the theatre of war.

VIII. To individuals of the two nations respectively shall be granted the res-

toration of all effects, revenues, or property, of what kind soever, detained, seized, or confiscated, on account of the war between France and Prussia, as well as prompt justice with respect to all debts due in the states of either of the two contracting powers to the subjects of the other.

IX. All prisoners taken respectively since the commencement of the war, without regard to difference of number or rank, including Prussian marines and sailors, taken either in Prussian ships or ships of other nations, as well as in general all those detained on either side on account of the war, shall be restored within the space of two months at the latest after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, on paying the private debts they may have contracted during their captivity. The same shall be done with respect to the sick and wounded immediately after their getting well.

Commissioners shall be immediately appointed on both sides, for executing this article.

X. The prisoners of Saxon, Mentz, Palatine, and Hessian, corps, with those of Hesse-Cassel and Darmstadt, who have served in the army of the King of Prussia, shall be included in the exchange above-mentioned.

XI. The French republic will accept of the good offices of his majesty the King of Prussia in favour of the princes and states of the German empire who shall desire to enter directly into negotiation with it, and who to that end have already requested, or shall request, the interposition of the king.

The French republic, to give to the King of Prussia a first proof of its desire to concur in the re-establishment of the ancient bonds of amity which have subsisted between the two nations, consents not to treat as an enemy's country, during the space of three months after the ratification of the present treaty, the territories of those princes and states of the empire aforesaid, situated on the left bank of the Rhine, in whose favour the king shall interest himself.

XII. The present treaty shall have no effect till after being ratified by the contracting parties; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the city of Basle within one month from this date, or sooner if possible.

[From the last continental intelligence it appears that Prussia is not the only power with which the French wish to be on friendly terms. The negotiations with Spain seem to have been carrying on for some time, and are nearly concluded.]



**CHARETTE'S TREATY.**

The following are the principal articles of Charette's Treaty with the National Convention; finally settled on the 7th of March:—

Article I. The representatives of the people promise, that the sum of eighty millions shall be granted to the inhabitants of La Vendée, to indemnify them for the losses, burnings, and devastations, they have suffered.

Art. II. Forty millions, on account of that sum, shall be immediately paid, to be distributed.

Art. III. All the engagements (*bons*) underwritten by the generals of La Vendée shall be discharged by the republic.

Art. IV. The sum of ten millions shall be deposited for that purpose.

Art. V. The inhabitants of La Vendée acknowledge the republic.

Art. VI. General Charette shall have the command of a body of 2000 men, in the pay of the republic.

Art. VII. That force shall consist of three battalions; the one to be stationed at Machecoul, the second at Chalons, and the third at another place, to be determined afterwards.

Art. VIII. A list to be made of such persons as are to be banished from La Vendée; that list to be drawn and presented by General Charette.

Art. IX. The free exercise of the Catholic worship shall be permitted. A place may be purchased for the building of a church; but there shall be no bells, nor any exterior ceremonies.

Art. X. The priest's nonjurors (*infernités*) and banished, may return to La Vendée, and will be restored to their patrimonial estates only.

Art. XI. There shall be in La Vendée no districts nor municipalities, but only a national agent in every province.

Art. XII. There shall be no requisitions in La Vendée for the space of five years.

*From a French Paper of the 12th of December last, published at Guadaloupe, in the West Indies.*

**LIBERTY, LAW, EQUALITY.**

Victor Hugue, delegated commissary of the national convention to the Windward Islands:

Whereas the crimes committed by the British officers, as well in the capture as in the defence of the conquered islands, exhibited a character of such consummate and odious villainy, as is not to be paralleled in history:

And whereas the rights of humanity, of war, and of nations, have been violated by Charles Grey, general; John Jervis, admiral; Thomas Dundas, major-general and governor of Guadaloupe; Gordon, a general officer; and other subaltern officers who imitated them:

And whereas also the robberies, murders, assassinations, and other crimes, committed by them, ought to be transmitted to posterity; it is resolved, That the body of Thomas Dundas, interred at Guadaloupe, 3d of June (slaves' stile), shall be taken up and given a prey to the birds of the air; that upon the same spot there shall be erected, at the expence of the republic, a monument bearing on one side this decree; and on the other the following inscription: "This ground, restored to liberty by the bravery of republicans, was polluted by the body of Thomas Dundas, major-general and governor of Guadaloupe for the \* \* George the Third. In recollecting his crimes, the public indignation caused him to be taken up, and has ordered this monument to be erected to hand them down to posterity."

Given at the port of liberty, December 11, the third year of the French republic, one and indivisible.

VICTOR HUGUE.

MADRID, March 17. A very dangerous conspiracy, which menaced the immediate subversion of the government, has been discovered here. Ten thousand of the mobility of this capital and the neighbouring villages, marshalled and conducted by able leaders, had formed the wicked design of surrounding the royal palace, and massacring the ministers, who are exceedingly obnoxious to the Spanish Jacobins.

But, very fortunately for the peace of society, the particulars of this republican plot were communicated to the executive power by some of the conspirators; and the necessary measures were adopted to check and suppress the premeditated insurrection. Some men who have hitherto retained immaculate characters are deeply involved in this desperate design, and will soon suffer the punishment due to their temerity in the Great Square.

BRUSSELS, April 5. There have been some disturbances here, excited by the garrison, on account of the dearness of provisions. The day before yesterday they sold the provisions in the markets at their own price. The representative of the people, Lefevre, is arrived from Paris with instructions to correct these abuses.

DOMESTIC

## DOMESTIC NEWS.

## THE PRINCESS OF WALES'S INTRODUCTION AT COURT.

**T**HURSDAY the 16th of April there was a very grand gala and court held by the Queen at St. James's Palace, on account of the *entrée* of their royal highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales, for the first time since their nuptials. The king, queen, and six princesses, came from Buckingham-house to St. James's in three carriages at one o'clock. The nobility and gentry of both sexes began also to assemble very early. At a quarter past two (the queen having previously held a private drawing room in her own apartments, where some persons were presented, who, according to the court etiquette, could not appear in the circle till they had passed this ceremony) their majesties and the six princesses entered the great council-chamber (the Princess Amelia making her *entrée* at court for the first time), and the court immediately commenced. The company were remarkably numerous, going and coming from before two till five o'clock, and consisted of most of the nobility and gentry of both sexes at present in the kingdom. The circle was most brilliant, and consisted of the king, queen, their royal highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke and Duchess of York, Duke of Clarence, the six princesses, the Duke of Gloucester, Prince William and Princess Sophia; their serene highnesses the Prince of Orange, Hereditary Prince and Princess, Prince Frederic, Prince Charles of Hesse, Marquis Bouille; Count Jenison Walworth, Baron Wolfe, Baron and Baroness Nolken; their excellencies the Spanish and Turkish ambassadors; Imperial, Russian, Prussian, Portuguese, Venetian, Genoese, Saxon, Bavarian, Neapolitan, Sardinian, American, Danish, and Swedish, envoys, and the ladies of most of them; all the great officers of state, nobility, and gentry, with many additions, as at the levee on Wednesday; the female nobility were remarkably numerous. The dresses were rich and well chosen. All the company wore bridal favours; the ladies at their bosoms and head-dress, the gentlemen in their hats. Those of the nobility, &c. who were at the celebration of the nuptials, were distinguished by rich devices of silver, presented by the queen on that occasion. The prince wore a very rich sword, and an elegant and costly jewel to his garter: his dress regi-

mentals of dragoons, full suit, with his garter over.

On the Princess of Wales descending from the carriage, Earls Cholmondeley and Darnley handed her royal highness to the drawing-room. Masters Doyle and Fitzgerald, the two pages in waiting, bore her train. The Marchioness Townshend and Countess of Jersey attended as ladies of the bed-chamber.

Of carriages, there were few, if any, new. The Duke of Portland's servants, who have just thrown off their mourning for the late duchess, and the attendants of his daughter, Lady M. Bentinck, were richly habited; their liveries of blue, richly lined in stripes of silver and thread lace, with insignia of the arms of the family worked between.

The cavalcade of the Prince of Wales consisted of six coaches, and exhibited a combination of elegance and splendour that had the fullest effect of show.

After the drawing-room the king, queen, princesses, and Duke of Clarence, dined together in the apartments fronting the chapel, where the first service was carried in at half past six o'clock. The Prince and Princess of Wales, and Duke and Duchess of York, returned home to dine, and dress for the ball. After dinner they had a refreshment of tea and coffee, previous to going to the ball-room.

Their majesties, accompanied by the princesses, entered the ball-room at a quarter before nine o'clock, and in about ten minutes after the Prince and Princess of Wales (who with their attendants came from Carleton-house in the same order of procession as to the drawing-room) made their appearance. The usual formalities having taken place, the ball commenced with minuets, twenty-nine of which were danced with the utmost grace and propriety.

None of the Orange family were present at the ball.

Before twelve o'clock the ball concluded; on which their majesties and the princesses, after having taken their leave of the prince and princess, left the room, and in a few minutes after the remainder of the brilliant assembly retired.

The dresses were in general very superb, and uncommonly elegant, and mostly the same as on the evening of the royal nuptials.



## LIFE AND CHARACTER OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY Queen of Scots, daughter of James V. was born in the royal palace of Linlithgow on the 8th of December 1542. Her mother was Mary, the eldest daughter of Claude duke of Guise, and widow of Louis duke of Longueville. Her father dying a few days after her birth, she scarcely existed before she was hailed queen.

The government of a queen was unknown in Scotland; and the government of an infant queen could not command much respect from martial and turbulent nobles, who exercised a kind of sovereignty over their own vassals; who looked upon the most warlike of their monarchs in hardly any other light than as the chief of the aristocracy; and who, upon the slightest disquiets, were ever ready to fly into rebellion, and to carry their arms to the foot of the throne.—James had not even provided against the disorders of a minority, by committing to proper persons the care of his daughter's education, and the administration of affairs in her name. The former of these objects, however, was not neglected, though the regency of the kingdom was entrusted to very feeble hands. At six years of age Mary was conveyed to France, where she received her education in the court of Henry II. The opening powers of her mind, and her natural dispositions, afforded early hopes of capacity and merit. After being taught to work with her needle and in tapestry, she was instructed in the Latin tongue; and she is said to have understood it with an accuracy, which is in this age very uncommon in persons of her sex and elevated rank, but which was not then surprising, when it was the fashion among great ladies to study the ancient languages. In the French, the Italian, and the Spanish, tongues, her proficiency was still greater, and she spoke them with equal ease and propriety. She walked, danced, and rode, with enchanting gracefulness; and she was qualified by nature as well as by

art to attain to distinction in painting, poetry, and music. To accomplish the woman was not, however, the sole object of her education. Either she was taught, or she very early discovered the necessity of acquiring, such branches of knowledge as might enable her to discharge with dignity and prudence the duties of a sovereign; and much of her time was devoted to the study of history, in which she delighted to the end of her life.

Whilst Mary resided in the court of Henry II. her personal charms made a deep impression on the mind of the dauphin. It was in vain that the Constable Montmorency opposed their marriage with all his influence. The importance of her kingdom to France, and the power of her uncles the princes of Lorraine, were more than sufficient to counteract his intrigues; and, to cut the matter short, the dauphin soon obtained the most beautiful princess in Christendom.

Though this alliance placed the Queen of Scotland in the most conspicuous point of view, in the politest court of Europe, and drew to her those attentions which are in the highest degree pleasing to a female mind in the gaiety of youth; it may yet be considered as having accidentally laid the foundation of the greatest part of her future misfortunes. Elizabeth, who now swayed the sceptre of England, had been declared illegitimate by an act of parliament: and though the English protestants paid no regard to a declaration which was compelled by the tyrannic violence of Henry VIII. and which he himself had indeed rendered null by calling his daughter to the throne after her brother and elder sister; yet the papists both at home and abroad had objections to the legitimacy of Elizabeth's birth, founded on principles which with them had greater weight than the acts of any human legislature. Mary was unquestionably the next heir in regular succession to the English throne, if Elizabeth should die without legi-

timate issue; and upon her marriage to the dauphin, she was induced by the persuasion of her uncles, by the authority of the French king, and no doubt partly by her own ambition, to assume the title and arms of Queen of England and Ireland. These, indeed, she forebore as soon as she became her own mistress; but the having at all assumed them was an offence which Elizabeth could never forgive, and which rankling in her bosom made her many years afterwards pursue the unhappy Queen of Scots to the block.

Henry II. dying soon after the marriage of the dauphin and Mary, they mounted the throne of France. In that elevated station, the queen did not fail to distinguish herself. The weakness of her husband served to exhibit her accomplishments to the greatest advantage; and in a court where gallantry to the sex, and the most profound respect for the person of the sovereign, were inseparable from the manners of a gentleman, she learned the first lessons of royalty. But this scene of successful grandeur and unmixed felicity was of short duration. Her husband Francis died unexpectedly, after a short reign of sixteen months. Regret for his death, her own humiliation, the disgrace of her uncles the princes of Lorraine, which instantly followed, and the coldness of Catharine of Medicis the queen mother, who governed her son Charles IX. plunged Mary into inexpressible sorrow. She was invited to return to her own kingdom, and she tried to reconcile herself to her fate.

She was now to pass from a situation of elegance and splendour to the very reign of incivility and turbulence, where most of her accomplishments would be utterly lost. Among the Scots of that period, elegance of taste was little known. The generality of them were sunk in ignorance and barbarism; and what they termed religion dictated to all a petulant rudeness of speech and conduct to which the Queen of France was wholly unaccustomed. During her minority and absence, the protestant religion had gained a kind of esta-

blishment in Scotland; obtained, indeed, by violence, and therefore liable to be overturned by an act of the sovereign and the three estates in parliament. The queen, too, was unhappily of a different opinion from the great body of her subjects, upon that one topic, which among them actuated almost every heart, and directed almost every tongue. She had been educated in the church of Rome, and was strongly attached to that superstition: yet she had either moderation enough in her spirit, or discretion enough in her understanding, not to attempt any innovation in the prevailing faith of protestantism. She allowed her subjects the full and free exercise of their new religion, and only challenged the same indulgence for her own. She contrived to attach to her, whether from his heart or only in appearance, her natural brother, the Prior of St. Andrew's; a man of strong and vigorous parts, who, though he had taken the usual oath of obedience to the pope, had thrown off his spiritual allegiance, and placed himself at the head of the reformers. By his means she crushed an early and formidable rebellion; and in reward for his services conferred upon him a large estate, and created him Earl of Murray. For two or three years her reign was prosperous, and her administration applauded by all her subjects, except the protestant preachers; and had she either remained unmarried, or bestowed her affections upon a more worthy object, it is probable that her name would have descended to posterity among those of the most fortunate and most deserving of Scottish monarchs.

But a queen, young, beautiful, and accomplished, an ancient and hereditary kingdom, and the expectation of a mightier inheritance, were objects to excite the love and ambition of the most illustrious personages. Mary, however, who kept her eye steadily fixed on the English succession, rejected every offer of a foreign alliance; and, swayed at first by prudential motives, and afterwards by love the most excessive, she gave her hand to Henry Stewart lord Darnley, the son



son of the Earl of Lenox. This nobleman was, after herself, the nearest heir to the crown of England; he was likewise the first in succession after the Earl of Arran to the crown of Scotland; and it is known that James V. had intended to introduce into his kingdom the salique law, and to settle the crown upon Lenox in preference to his own daughter. These considerations made Mary solicitous for an interview with Darnley; and at that interview love stole into her heart, and effaced every favourable thought of all her other suitors. Nature had indeed been lavish to him of her kindness. He was tall of stature; his countenance and shapes were beautiful and regular; and, amidst the masks and dancing with which his arrival was celebrated, he shone with uncommon lustre. But the bounty of nature extended not to his mind. His understanding was narrow; his ambition excessive; his obstinacy inflexible; and, under the guidance of no fixed principle, he was inconstant and capricious. He knew neither how to enjoy his prosperity nor how to ensure it.

On the 29th of July 1565, this ill-fated pair was married: and though the queen gave her husband every possible evidence of the most extravagant love; though she infringed the principles of the constitution to confer upon him the title of king; and though she was willing to share with him all the offices, honours, and dignities, of royalty—he was not satisfied with his lot, but soon began to clamour for more power. He had not been married seven months, when he entered into a conspiracy to deprive Mary of the government, and to seat himself on her throne. With this view he headed a band of factious nobles, who entered her chamber at night; and, though she was then far advanced in her pregnancy, murdered her secretary in her presence, whilst one of the ruffians held a cocked pistol to her breast. Such an outrage, together with his infidelity and frequent amours, could not fail to alienate the affections of a high-spirited woman, and to open her eyes to those defects in his character which

the ardours of love had hitherto prevented her from seeing. She sighed and wept over the precipitation of her marriage: but, though it was no longer possible to love him, she still treated him with attention and respect, and laboured to fashion him to the humour of her people.

This was labour in vain. His preposterous vanity and aspiring pride roused the resentment and the scorn of the nobles: his follies and want of dignity made him little with the people. He deserted the conspirators with whom he had been leagued in the assassination of the secretary; and he had the extreme imprudence to threaten publicly the Earl of Murray, who, from his talents and his followers, possessed the greatest power of any man in the kingdom. The consequence was, that a combination was formed for the king's destruction; and, on the tenth day of February 1567, the house in which he then resided was early in the morning blown up with gun-powder, and his dead and naked body, without any marks of violence, was found in an adjoining field.

Such a daring and atrocious murder filled every mind with horror and astonishment. The queen, who had been in some measure reconciled to her husband, was overwhelmed with grief, and took every method in her power to discover the regicides; but for some days nothing appeared which could lead to the discovery. Papers indeed were posted on the most conspicuous places in Edinburgh, accusing the Earl of Bothwell of the crime; and rumours were industriously circulated that this horrid enterprise was encouraged by the queen. Conscious, it is to be presumed, of her own innocence, Mary was the less disposed to believe the guilt of Bothwell, who was accused as having only acted as her instrument; but, when he was charged with the murder by the Earl of Lenox, she instantly ordered him on his trial. Through the management of the Earl of Morton and others, who were afterwards discovered to have been partners in his guilt, Bothwell was acquitted of all share and knowledge of the king's murder;

murder; and what is absolutely astonishing, and shews the total want of honour at that time in Scotland, this flagitious man procured, by the same treacherous friends, a paper signed by the majority of the nobles, recommending him as a fit husband for the queen!

Armed with this instrument of mischief, which he weakly thought sufficient to defend him from danger, Bothwell soon afterward seized the person of his sovereign, and carried her a prisoner to his castle at Dunbar. It has indeed been alleged by the enemies of the queen, that no force was employed on the occasion; that she was seized with her own consent; and that she was even privy to the subscribing of the bond by the nobles. But it has been well observed by one of her ablest vindicators, that "her previous knowledge of the bond, and her acquiescence in the seizure of her person, are two facts in apparent opposition to each other. Had the queen acted in concert with Bothwell in obtaining the bond from the nobles, nothing remained but, under the sanction of their unanimous address, to have proceeded directly to the marriage. Instead of which, can we suppose her so weak as to reject that address, and rather choose that Bothwell should attempt to seize and carry her off by violence?—an attempt which many accidents might frustrate, and which at all events could not fail to render him or both of them odious to the whole nation. Common sense, then, as well as candour, must induce us to believe, that the scheme of seizing the queen was solely the contrivance of Bothwell and his associates, and that it was really by force that she was carried to Dunbar." Being there kept a close prisoner for twelve days; having, as there is reason to believe, actually suffered the indignity of a rape; perceiving no appearance of a rescue; and being shewn the infamous bond of the nobles; Mary promised to receive her ravisher for a husband, as in her opinion the only refuge for her injured honour. Without condemning with asperity this compliance of the queen, it is impossible not to re-

collect the more dignified conduct which Richardson attributes in similar circumstances to his *Clarissa*; and every man, who feels for the sufferings and respects the memory of Mary, must regret that she had not fortitude to resist every attempt to force upon her as a husband the profligate and audacious villain who had offered her such an insult as no virtuous woman ought ever to forgive. This, however, is only to regret that she was not more than human; that she, who possessed so many perfections, should have had them blended with one defect. "In the irretrievable situation of her affairs, let the most severe of her sex say what course was left for her to follow? Her first and most urgent concern was to regain her liberty. That probably she attained by promising to be directed by the advice of her council, where Bothwell had nothing to fear." The marriage, thus inauspiciously contracted, was solemnized on the 15th of May 1567; and it was the signal for revolt to Morton, Lethington, and many of the other nobles, by whose wicked and relentless policy it had been chiefly brought about, and who had bound themselves to employ their swords against all persons who should presume to disturb so desirable an event.

As Bothwell was justly and universally detested, and as the rebels pretended that it was only against him and not against their sovereign that they had taken up arms, troops flocked to them from every quarter. The progress of this rebellion it is beside our present design to enlarge upon: suffice it to say here, that upon the faith of promises the most solemn, not only of personal safety to herself, but of receiving as much honour, service, and obedience, as ever in any former period was paid by the nobility to the princes her predecessors, the unhappy queen delivered herself into the hands of the rebels, and persuaded her husband to fly from the danger which in her apprehension threatened his life. These promises were instantly violated. The faithless nobles, after insulting their sovereign in the cruellest manner, hurried



ried her as a prisoner to a castle within a lake, where she was committed to the care of that very woman who was the mother of her bastard brother, and who treated her with every kind of indignity.

In this distress the queen's fortitude and presence of mind did not forsake her: she contrived to make her escape from her prison, and soon found herself at the head of six thousand combatants. This army, however, was defeated; and, in opposition to the advice and intreaties of all her friends, she hastily formed the resolution of taking refuge in England. The Archbishop of St. Andrew's in particular accompanied her to the border; and, when she was about to quit her own kingdom, he laid hold of her horse's bridle, and on his knees conjured her to return: but Mary proceeded, with the utmost reliance on the friendship of Elizabeth, which had been offered to her when she was a prisoner, and of the sincerity of which she harboured not a doubt.

That princess, however, who had not yet forgotten her assumption of the title and arms of the Queen of England, was now taught to dread her talents and to be envious of her charms. She therefore, under various pretences, kept her a close prisoner for nineteen years; encouraged her rebellious subjects to accuse her publicly of the murder of her husband; allowed her no opportunity of vindicating her honour; and even employed venal scribblers to blast her fame. Under this unparalleled load of complicated distress, Mary preserved the magnanimity of a queen, and practised with sincerity the duties of a Christian. Her sufferings, her dignified affability, and her gentleness of disposition, gained her great popularity in England, especially among the Roman catholics; and as she made many attempts to procure her liberty, and carried on a constant correspondence with foreign powers, Elizabeth became at last so much afraid of her intrigues, that she determined to cut her off, at whatever hazard. With this view she prevailed upon her parliament to pass an act which

might make Mary answerable for the crimes of all who should call themselves her partisans; and upon that statute she was tried as a traitor concerned in the conspiracy of Babington: (see the Wars of England hereto annexed.) Though the trial was conducted in a manner which would have been illegal even if she had been a subject of England, and though no certain proof appeared of her connection with the conspirators, she was, to the amazement of all Europe, condemned to suffer death.

The fair heroine received her sentence with great composure; saying to those by whom it was announced, "The news you bring cannot but be most welcome, since they announce the termination of my miseries. Nor do I account that soul to be deserving of the felicities of immortality which can shrink under the sufferings of the body, or scruple the stroke that sets it free." On the evening before her execution, for which, on the succeeding morn, she prepared herself with religious solemnity and perfect resignation, she ordered all her servants to appear before her, and drank to them. She even condescended to beg their pardon for her omissions or neglects; and she recommended it to them to love charity, to avoid the unhappy passions of hatred and malice, and to preserve themselves steadfast in the faith of Christ. She then distributed among them her money, her jewels, and her clothes, according to their rank or merit. She wrote her will with her own hand, constituting the Duke of Guise her principal executor; and to the King and Queen of France she recommended her son, provided he should prove worthy of their esteem.—In the castle of Fotheringay she was beheaded on the 8th of February 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age; and her body, after being embalmed and committed to a leaden coffin, was buried with royal pomp and splendour in the cathedral of Peterborough. Twenty years afterwards her bones were by order of her son and only child King James I. removed to Westminster, and deposited in their proper place among the sovereigns of England.

The

The general character of Mary, which should now be laid before the reader, has furnished matter of controversy for two hundred years. She is universally allowed to have had considerable talents, and a mind highly cultivated. By one party she is painted with more virtues and with fewer defects than almost any other woman of the age in which she lived. By another she is represented as guilty of the grossest crimes which a woman can commit—adultery and the murder of her husband. By all it is confessed, that, previous to her connection with the Earl of Bothwell, her life as a Christian was exemplary, and her administration as a queen equitable and mild; and it has never been denied that she bore her tedious sufferings with such resignation and fortitude as are seldom found united with conscious guilt. These are strong presumptions of her innocence. The moral characters of men change by degrees; and it seems hardly consistent with the known principles of human nature, that any person should at once plunge deliberately from the summit of virtue to the depths of

vice; or, when sunk so low, should by one effort recover his original state of elevation. But in this controversy presumptions must go for nothing. The positive evidences which were brought against the Queen of Scots are so conclusive, that if they be genuine she must have been guilty; and, if they be spurious, there can be no doubt of her innocence. They consisted of a box with letters, contracts, and sonnets, said to be written by herself and sent to the Earl of Bothwell. In addition to these, the supposed confessions of the criminals who had suffered for the king's murder were originally urged as proofs of her guilt: but those confessions are now admitted by all parties to be either wholly forged, or so grossly interpolated that no stress whatever can be laid upon them; and during Mary's life it was affirmed by her friends, and not sufficiently contradicted by her enemies, that the persons who had accused Bothwell, and were doubtless his accomplices, instead of criminating the queen, had openly protested her innocence in their dying moments.

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 7.

**T**HE continent of America extends from Cape Horn, the southern extremity of the continent, in latitude fifty-six degrees south, to the north pole; and spreads between the fortieth degree east and the hundredth degree west longitude from Philadelphia. It is nearly ten thousand miles in length from north to south. Its average breadth may be about fourteen or fifteen hundred miles. This extensive continent lies between the Pacific Ocean on the west, and the Atlantic on the east. It is said to contain upwards of fourteen millions square miles.

In regard to the climate, soil, and productions, America has all the varieties which the earth affords. It stretches almost through the whole width of the five zones, and feels the heat and cold of two summers and

two winters in every year. Most of the animal and vegetable productions which the eastern continent affords, are found here; and many that are peculiar to America alone.

There are no data, says Mr. Morse, in his late improved edition of American Geography, from which we may estimate the number of inhabitants in America with any degree of accuracy. I suppose the continent of America to contain fourteen millions of square miles; including the islands, fifteen millions. The United States contain one million square miles, or one fifteenth part of the American continent and islands. I suppose (merely for the purpose of calculation) that every other part of America is as populous as the United States. Probably there may be some parts, particularly the West-India islands;



lands, and some provinces in Spanish America, which are more populous; but there are many other parts which are by no means so populous. The probability in my opinion, is, that the other parts of America, collectively considered, are not nearly so thickly inhabited as the territory of the United States. There is certainly no reason to believe that they are more populous. American population is thin: and vast tracts of deserts, marshes, and mountains, are uninhabited. In the United States we reckon four millions of inhabitants, Anglo-Americans, negroes, mulattoes, and Indians, within the jurisdiction of the general government. Besides these, there may be about fifty thousand Indians, independent of the United States, and subject to their own princes. The whole population of the United States then we reckon at four millions and fifty thousand. If then we suppose America to contain fifteen millions of square miles; and that in every part it is equally as populous as the United States, that is, that there are in every million of square miles four millions and fifty thousand inhabitants; the whole number will be sixty millions seven hundred and fifty thousand.

America is not of equal breadth throughout its whole extent; but is divided into two great continents, called North and South America, by an isthmus one thousand five hundred miles long, and which at Darien, about latitude nine degrees north, is only sixty miles over. This isthmus forms, with the northern and southern continents, a vast gulph, in which lie a great number of islands, called, the West Indies, in contradistinction to the eastern parts of Asia, which are called the East Indies.

Between the New World and the Old there are several very striking differences; but the most remarkable is the general predominance of cold throughout the whole extent of America. Though we cannot, in any country, determine the precise degree of heat merely by the distance of the equator, because the elevation above the sea, the nature of the soil,

&c. affect the climate; yet, in the ancient continent, the heat is much more in proportion to the vicinity to the equator than in any part of America. Here the rigour of the frigid zone extends over half that which should be temperate by its position. Even in those latitudes where the winter is scarcely felt on the Old continent, it reigns with great severity in America, though during a short period. Nor does this cold, prevalent in the New World, confine itself to the temperate zones; but extends its influence to the torrid zone also, considerably mitigating the excess of its heat.—Along the eastern coast, the climate, though more similar to that of the torrid zone in other parts of the earth, is nevertheless considerably milder than in those countries of Asia and Africa which lie in the same latitude. From the southern tropic to the extremity of the American continent, the cold is said to be much greater than in parallel northern latitudes even of America itself.

For this so remarkable difference between the climate of the New continent and the Old, various causes have been assigned by different authors. The following is the opinion of the learned Dr. Robertson on this subject. "Though the utmost extent of America towards the north be not yet discovered, we know that it advances nearer to the pole than either Europe or Asia. The latter have large seas to the north, which are open during part of the year; and, even when covered with ice, the wind that blows over them is less intensely cold than that which blows over land in the same latitudes. But, in America, the land stretches from the river St. Laurence towards the pole, and spreads out immensely to the west. A chain of enormous mountains, covered with snow and ice, runs through all this dreary region. The wind, passing over such an extent of high frozen land, becomes so impregnated with cold, that it requires a piercing keenness, which it retains in its progress through warmer climates; and is not entirely mitigated until it reach the gulph of Mexico. Over all the continent of North

North America, a north-westerly wind and excessive cold are synonymous terms. Even in the most sultry weather, the moment that the wind veers to that quarter, its penetrating influence is felt in a transition from heat to cold no less violent than sudden. To this powerful cause we may ascribe the extraordinary dominion of cold, and its violent inroads into the southern provinces in that part of the globe.

“ Other causes, no less remarkable, diminish the active power of heat in those parts of the American continent which lie between the tropics. In all that portion of the globe, the wind blows in an invariable direction from east to west. As this wind holds its course across the ancient continent, it arrives at the countries which stretch along the western shore of Africa, inflamed with all the fiery particles which it hath collected from the sultry plains of Asia, and the burning sands in the African deserts. The coast of Africa is accordingly the region of the earth which feels the most fervent heat, and is exposed to the unmitigated ardour of the torrid zone. But this same wind, which brings such an accession of warmth to the countries lying between the river of Senegal and Cafraria, traverses the Atlantic ocean before it reaches the American shore. It is cooled in its passage over this vast body of water; and is felt as a refreshing gale along the coasts of Brasil and Guiana, rendering those countries, though amongst the warmest in America, temperate, when compared with those which lie opposite to them in Africa. As this wind advances in its course across America, it meets with immense plains covered with impenetrable forests; or occupied by large rivers, marshes, and stagnating waters, where it can recover no considerable degree of heat. At length it arrives at the Andes, which run from north to south through the whole continent. In passing over their elevated and frozen summits, it is so thoroughly cooled, that the greater part of the countries beyond them hardly feel the ardour to which they seem exposed by their situation. In the other

provinces of America, from Terra Firma westward to the Mexican empire, the heat of the climate is tempered, in some places, by the elevation of the land above the sea; in others, by their extraordinary humidity; and in all, by the enormous mountains scattered over this tract. The islands of America in the torrid zone are either small or mountainous, and are fanned alternately by refreshing sea and land breezes.

The causes of the extraordinary cold towards the southern limits of America, and in the seas beyond it, cannot be ascertained in a manner equally satisfying. It was long supposed, that a vast continent, distinguished by the name of *Terra Australis Incognita*, lay between the southern extremity of America and the antarctic pole. The same principles, which account for the extraordinary degree of cold in the northern regions of America, were employed in order to explain that which is felt at Cape Horn and the adjacent countries. The immense extent of the southern continent, and the rivers which it poured into the ocean, were mentioned and admitted by philosophers as causes sufficient to occasion the unusual sensation of cold, and the still more uncommon appearances of frozen seas, in that region of the globe. But the imaginary continent to which such influence was ascribed having been searched for in vain, and the space which it was supposed to occupy having been found to be an open sea, new conjectures must be formed with respect to the causes of a temperature of climate so extremely different from that which we experience in countries removed at the same distance from the opposite pole.

The most obvious and probable cause of this superior degree of cold towards the southern extremity of America, seems to be the form of the continent there. Its breadth gradually decreases as it stretches from St. Antonio southwards, and from the bay of St. Julian to the straits of Magellan its dimensions are much contracted. On the east and west sides, it is washed by the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. From its southern point,



point, it is probable that an open sea stretches to the antarctic pole. In which ever of these directions the wind blows, it is cooled before it approaches the Magellanic regions, by passing over a vast body of water; nor is the land there of such extent, that it can recover any considerable degree of heat in its progress over it. These circumstances concur in rendering the temperature of the air in this district of America more similar to that of an insular than to that of a continental climate; and hinder it from acquiring the same degree of summer-heat with places in Europe and Asia in a corresponding northern latitude. The north wind is the only one that reaches this part of America, after blowing over a great continent. But, from an attentive survey of its position, this will be found to have a tendency rather to diminish than augment the degree of heat. The southern extremity of America is properly the termination of the immense ridge of the Andes, which stretches nearly in a direct line from north to south, through the whole extent of the continent. The most sultry regions in South America, Guiana, Brasil, Paraguay, and Tucuman, lie many degrees to the east of the Magellanic regions. The level country of Peru, which enjoys the tropical heats, is situated considerably to the west of them. The north wind, then, though it blows over land, does not bring to the southern extremity of America an increase of heat collected in its passage over torrid regions; but, before it arrives there, it must have swept along the summit of the Andes, and come impregnated with the cold of that frozen region."

Another particularity in the climate of America, is its excessive moisture in general. In some places, indeed, on the western coast, rain is not known; but, in all other parts, the moistness of the climate is as remarkable as the cold.—The forests where-with it is every where covered, no doubt, partly occasion the moisture of its climate; but the most prevalent cause is the vast quantity of water in the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, with which America is environed on all

sides. Hence those places where the continent is narrowest are deluged with almost perpetual rains, accompanied with violent thunder and lightning, by which some of them, particularly Porto Bello, are rendered in a manner uninhabitable.

This extreme moisture of the American climate is productive of much larger rivers there than in any other part of the world. The Danube, the Nile, the Indus, or the Ganges, are not comparable to the Mississippi, the river St. Laurence, or that of the Amazons; nor are such large lakes to be found any where as those which North America affords.—To the same cause we are also partly to ascribe the excessive luxuriance of all kinds of vegetables in almost all parts of this country. In the southern provinces, where the moisture of the climate is aided by the warmth of the sun, the woods are almost impervious, and the surface of the ground is hid from the eye, under a thick covering of shrubs, herbs, and weeds.—In the northern provinces, the forests are not encumbered with the same luxuriance of vegetation; nevertheless, they afford trees much larger of their kind than what are to be found any where else.

From the coldness and the moisture of America, an extreme malignity of climate has been inferred, and asserted by M. de Paw, in his *Recherches Philosophiques*. Hence according to his hypothesis, the smallness and irregularity of the nobler animals, and the size and enormous multiplication of reptiles and insects.

But the supposed smallness and less ferocity of the American animals, the Abbé Clavigero observes, instead of the malignity, demonstrates the mildness and bounty, of the climate, if we give credit to Buffon, at whose fountain M. de Paw has drunk, and of whose testimony he has availed himself against Don Pernetty. Buffon, who in many places of his *Natural History* produces the smallness of the American animals as a certain argument of the malignity of the climate of America, in treating afterwards of savage animals, in tom. ii. speaks thus:—"As all things, even the most free

free creatures, are subject to natural laws, and animals as well as men are subjected to the influence of climate and soil, it appears that the same causes that have civilized and polished the human species in our climates, may have likewise produced similar effects upon other species. The wolf, which is perhaps the fiercest of all the quadrupeds of the temperate zone, is however incomparably less terrible than the tyger, the lion, and the panther, of the torrid zone; and the white bear and hyena of the frigid zone. In America, where the air and the earth are more mild than in Africa, the tyger, the lion, and the panther, are not terrible but in the name. They have degenerated, if fierceness, joined to cruelty, made their nature; or, to speak more properly, they have only suffered the influence of the climate: under a milder sky, their nature also has become more mild. From climes which are immoderate in their temperature, are obtained drugs, perfumes, poisons, and all those plants whose qualities are strong. The temperate earth, on the contrary, produces only things which are temperate; the mildest herbs, the most wholesome pulse, the sweetest fruits, the most quiet animals, and the most humane men, are the natives of this happy clime. As the earth makes the plants, the earth and plants make animals; the earth, the plants, and the animals, make man. The physical qualities of man, and the animals which feed on other animals, depend, though more remotely, on the same causes which influence their dispositions and customs. This is the greatest proof and demonstration, that in temperate climes every thing becomes temperate, and that in intemperate climes every thing is excessive; and that size and form, which appear fixed and determinate qualities, depend, notwithstanding, like the relative qualities, on the influence of climate. The size of our quadrupeds cannot be compared with that of an elephant, the rhinoceros, or sea-horse. The largest of our birds are but small, if compared with the ostrich, the condore, *cascares*." So

far M. Buffon, whose text we have copied, because it is contrary to what M. de Paw writes against the climate of America, and to Buffon himself in many other places.

If the large and fierce animals are natives of intemperate climes, and small and tranquil animals of temperate climes, as M. Buffon has here established; if mildness of climate influences the disposition and customs of animals; M. de Paw does not well deduce the malignity of the climate of America from the smaller size and less fierceness of its animals; he ought rather to have deduced the gentleness and sweetness of its climate from this antecedent. If, on the contrary, the smaller size and less fierceness of the American animals, with respect to the Old continent, are a proof of their degeneracy, arising from the malignity of the clime, as M. de Paw would have it, we ought in like manner to argue the malignity of the climate of Europe from the smaller size and less fierceness of its animals, compared with those of Africa. If a philosopher of the country of Guinea should undertake a work in imitation of M. de Paw, with this title, *Recherches Philosophiques sur les Européens*, he might avail himself of the same argument which M. de Paw uses, to demonstrate the malignity of the climate of Europe, and the advantages of that of Africa. The climate of Europe, he would say, is very unfavourable to the production of quadrupeds, which are found incomparably smaller and more cowardly than ours. What are the horse and the ox, the largest of its animals, compared with our elephants, our rhinoceroses, our sea-horses, and our camels? What are its lizards, either in size or intrepidity, compared with our crocodiles? Its wolves, its bears, the most dreadful of its wild beasts, when beside our lions and tygers? Its eagles, its vultures, and cranes, if compared with our ostriches, appear only like hens.

As to the enormous size and prodigious multiplication of the insects and other little noxious animals, "The surface of the earth, (says M. de Paw,) infected by putrefaction,

was



was over-run with lizards, serpents, reptiles, and insects monstrous for size, and the activity of their poison, which they drew from the copious juices of this uncultivated soil, that was corrupted and abandoned to itself, where the nutritive juice became sharp, like the milk in the breast of animals which do not exercise the virtue of propagation. Caterpillars, crabs, butterflies, beetles, spiders, frogs, and toads, were for the most part of an enormous corpulence in their species, and multiplied beyond what can be imagined. Panama is infested with serpents, Carthage with clouds of enormous bats, Porto Bello with toads, Surinam with *kakerlacas*, or *cucarachas*, Guadaloupe, and other colonies of the islands, with beetles, Quito with niguas or chegoes, and Lima with lice and bugs. The ancient kings of Mexico, and the emperors of Peru, found no other means of ridding their subjects of those insects which fed upon them, than the imposition of an annual tribute of a certain quantity of lice. Ferdinand Cortes found bags full of them in the palace of Montezuma." But this argument, exaggerated as it is, proves nothing against the climate of America in general, much less against that of Mexico. There being some lands in America, in which, on account of their heat, humidity, or want of inhabitants, large insects are found, and excessively multiplied, will prove at most, that in some places the surface of the earth is infected, as he says, with putrefaction; but not that the soil of Mexico, or that of all America, is stinking, uncultivated, vitiated, and abandoned to itself. If such a deduction were just, M. de Paw might also say, that the soil of the Old continent is barren, and stinks; as in many countries of it there are prodigious multitudes of monstrous insects, noxious reptiles, and vile animals, as in the Philippine isles, in many of those of the Indian archipelago, in several countries of the south of Asia, in many of Africa, and even in some of Europe. The Philippine isles are infested with enormous ants and monstrous butterflies, Japan with scorpions, south of

Asia and Africa with serpents, Egypt with asps, Guinea and Ethiopia with armies of ants, Holland with field-rats, Ukrania with toads, as M. de Paw himself affirms. In Italy, the Campagna di Roma (although peopled for so many ages) with vipers; Calabria with tarantulas; the shores of the Adriatic sea, with clouds of gnats; and even in France, the population of which is so great and so ancient, whose lands are so well cultivated, and whose climate is so celebrated by the French, there appeared, a few years ago, according to M. Buffon, a new species of field-mice, larger than the common kind, called by him *surmulots*, which have multiplied exceedingly, to the great damage of the fields. M. Bazin, in his Compendium of the History of Insects, numbers seventy-seven species of bugs, which are all found in Paris and its neighbourhood. That large capital, as Mr. Bomare says, swarms with those disgusting insects. It is true, that there are places in America, where the multitude of insects, and filthy vermin, make life irksome; but we do not know that they have arrived to such excess of multiplication as to depopulate any place, at least there cannot be so many examples produced of this cause of depopulation in the New as in the Old continent, which are attested by Theophrastus, Varro, Pliny, and other authors. The frogs depopulated one place in Gaul, and the locusts another in Africa. One of the Cyclades was depopulated by mice; Amiclas, near to Taracina, by serpents; another place, near to Ethiopia, by scorpions and poisonous ants; and another by scolopendras; and not so distant from our own times, the Mauritius was going to have been abandoned on account of the extraordinary multiplication of rats, as we can remember to have read in a French author.

With respect to the size of the insects, reptiles, and such animals, M. de Paw makes use of the testimony of Mr. Dumont, who, in his Memoirs on Louisiana, says, that the frogs are so large there that they weigh thirty-seven French pounds, and their horrid croaking imitates the bellowing of

cows. But M. de Paw himself says (in his answer to Don Pernetty, cap. 17.) that all those who have written about Louisiana from Henepin, Le Clerc, and Cav. Tonti, to Dumont, have contradicted each other, sometimes on one and sometimes on another subject. In fact, neither in the Old or the New continent are there frogs of thirty-seven pounds in weight; but there are in Asia and Africa serpents, butterflies, ants, and other animals, of such monstrous size, that they exceed all those which have been discovered in the New World. We know very well, that some American historian says, that a certain gigantic species of serpents is to be found in the woods, which attract men with their breath, and swallow them up; but we know also, that several historians, both ancient and modern, report the same thing of the serpents of Asia, and even something more. Megasthenes, cited by Pliny, said, that there were serpents found in Asia, so large, that they swallowed entire stags and bulls. Metrodorus cited by the same author, affirms, that in Asia there were serpents which, by their breath, attracted birds, however high they were or quick their flight. Among the moderns, Gemelli, in vol. v. of his Tour of the World, treating of the animals of the Philippine isles, speaks thus:—"There are serpents in these islands of immoderate size; there is one called *ibitin*, very long, which, suspending itself by the tail from the trunk of a tree, waits till stags, bears, and also men, pass by, in order to attract them with its breath, and devour them at once entirely:" from whence it is evident, that this very ancient fable has been common to both continents.

Further, it may be asked, In what country of America could M. de Paw find ants to equal those of the Philippine islands, called *fulum*, respecting which Hernandez affirms, that they were six fingers broad in length and one in breadth? Who has ever seen in America butterflies so large as those of Bourbon, Ternate, the Philippine isles, and all the Indian archipelago? The largest bat of America, (native of hot shady countries,) which

is that called by Buffon *vampiro*, is, according to him, of the size of a pigeon. *La rougette*, one of the species of Asia, is as large as a raven; and *roufette*, another species of Asia, is as big as a large hen. Its wings, when extended, measure from tip to tip three Parisian feet, and according to Gemelli, who measured it in the Philippine isles, six palms. M. Buffon acknowledges the excess in size of the Asiatic bat over the American species, but denies it as to number. Gemelli says, that those of the island of Luzon were so numerous that they darkened the air, and that the noise which they made with their teeth, in eating the fruits of the woods, was heard at the distance of two miles. M. de Paw says, in talking of serpents, "it cannot be affirmed that the New World has shewn any serpents larger than those which Mr. Adanson saw in the deserts of Africa." The greatest serpent found in Mexico, after a diligent search made by Hernandez, was eighteen feet long: but this is not to be compared with that of the Moluccas, which Bomare says is thirty-three feet in length; nor with the *anocandaja* of Ceylon, which the same author says is more than thirty-three feet long; nor with others of Asia and Africa, mentioned by the same author. Lastly, the argument drawn from the multitude and size of the American insects is fully as weighty as the argument drawn from the smallness and scarcity of quadrupeds, and both detect the same ignorance, or rather the same voluntary and studied forgetfulness, of the things of the Old continent.

With respect to what M. de Paw has said of the tribute of lice in Mexico, in that as well as in many other things he discovers his ridiculous credulity. It is true that Cortes found bags of lice in the magazines of the palace of King Axajacatl. It is also true, that Montezuma imposed such a tribute, not on all his subjects, however, but only on those who were beggars; not on account of the extraordinary multitude of those insects, as M. de Paw affirms, but because Montezuma, who could not suffer idleness in his subjects, resolved that  
that



that miserable set of people, who could not labour, should at least be occupied in lousing themselves. This was the true reason of such an extravagant tribute, as Torquemada, Betancourt, and other historians, relate; and nobody ever before thought of that which M. de Paw affirms, merely because it suited his preposterous system. Those disgusting insects pos-

sibly abound as much in the hair and clothes of American beggars, as of any poor and uncleanly low people in the world: but there is not a doubt, that if any sovereign of Europe was to exact such a tribute from the poor in his dominions, not only bags, but great vessels, might be filled with them.

*(To be continued.)*

#### GREAT EXAMPLE OF FRIENDSHIP.

WHEN Damon was sentenced by Dionysius of Syracuse to die on a certain day, he begged permission, in the interim, to retire to his own country, to set the affairs of his disconsolate family in order. This the tyrant intended peremptorily to refuse, by granting it, as he conceived, on the impossible conditions of his procuring some one to remain as hostage for his return, under equal forfeiture of life. Pythias heard the conditions, and did not wait for an application upon the part of Damon; he instantly offered himself as security for his friend, which, being accepted, Damon was immediately set at liberty. The king and all the courtiers were astonished at this action; and therefore, when the day of execution drew near, his majesty had the curiosity to visit Pythias in his confinement. After some conversation on the subject of friendship, in which the tyrant delivered it as his opinion that self-interest was the sole mover of human actions; as for virtue, friendship, benevolence, love of one's country, and the like, he looked upon them as terms invented by the wise to keep in awe and impose upon the weak;—"My lord," said Pythias, with a firm voice and noble aspect, "I would it were possible that I might suffer a thousand deaths, rather than my friend should fail in any article of his honour. He cannot fail therein, my lord: I am as confident of his virtue as I am of my own existence. But I pray, I beseech the gods, to preserve the life and integrity of my Damon together: oppose him, ye winds, prevent the eagerness and impatience of his honourable endea-

vours, and suffer him not to arrive till by my death I have redeemed a life a thousand times of more consequence, of more value, than my own; more estimable to his lovely wife, to his precious little innocents, to his friends, to his country. O leave me not to die the worst of deaths in my Damon." Dionysius was awed and confounded by the dignity of these sentiments, and by the manner in which they were uttered: he felt his heart struck by a slight sense of invading truth; but it served rather to perplex than undeceive him. The fatal day arrived. Pythias was brought forth, and walked amidst the guards, with a serious but satisfied air, to the place of execution. Dionysius was already there; he was exalted on a moving throne, that was drawn by six white horses, and sat pensive and attentive to the prisoner. Pythias came, he vaulted lightly on the scaffold, and, beholding for some time the apparatus of his death, he turned with a placid countenance, and addressed the spectators: "My prayers are heard," he cried, "the gods are propitious; you know, my friends, that the winds have been contrary till yesterday. Damon could not come, he could not conquer impossibilities; he will be here to-morrow, and the blood which is shed to-day shall have ransomed the life of my friend. O could I erase from your bosoms every doubt, every mean suspicion, of the honour of the man for whom I am about to suffer, I should go to my death even as I would to my bridal. Be it sufficient in the mean time, that my friend will be found noble, that his truth is unimpeachable; that he will speedily

speedily prove it; that he is now on his way, hurrying on, accusing himself, the adverse elements, and the gods; but I haste to prevent his speed: executioner to your office." As he pronounced the last words, a buz began to rise among the remotest of the people; a distant voice was heard, the crowd caught the words, and Stop, stop the execution, was repeated by the whole assembly: a man came at full speed; the throng gave way to his approach: he was mounted on a steed of foam: in an instant he was off his horse, on the scaffold, and held Pythias straitly embraced. "You are safe," he cried, "you are safe, my friend, my beloved friend, the gods be praised, you are safe. I now have nothing but death to suffer, and am delivered from the anguish of those reproaches which I gave myself, for having endangered a life so

much dearer than my own." Pale, cold, and half speechless, in the arms of his Damon, Pythias replied in broken accents—"Fatal haste! Cruel impatience!—What envious powers have wrought impossibilities in your favour?—But I will not be wholly disappointed."—Since I cannot die to save, I will not survive you. Dionysius heard, beheld, and considered, all with astonishment. His heart was touched, he wept, and, leaving his throne, he ascended the scaffold. "Live, live, ye incomparable pair!" he cried, "ye have borne unquestionable testimony to the existence of virtue! and that virtue equally evinces the existence of a God to reward it. Live happy, live renowned: and, oh! form me by your precepts, as ye have invited me by your example, to be worthy of the participation of so sacred a friendship."

#### MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS ON KISSES.

**T**HE women of England not only salute their relations with a kiss, but all persons promiscuously, and this ceremony they repeat gently touching them with their lips, not only with grace, but without the least immodesty. Such however as are of the blood royal, do not kiss their inferiors, but offer the back of the hand, as men do, by way of saluting each other.

The above, is the observation of Polydore Virgil.—Erasmus, in an epistle to an intimate friend, conceived in very pleasant terms, says thus:

"Did you but know, my Faustus, the pleasures which England affords, you would fly here on winged feet, and, if your gout would not allow you, you would wish yourself a Dædalus. To mention to you one among many things, here are nymphs of the loveliest looks, good humoured, easy of access, and whom you would prefer even to your favourite muses. Here also prevails a custom never enough to be commended, that wherever you come every one receives you with a kiss, and when you take your leave every one gives you a kiss; when you return, kisses again meet you. If

any one leaves you, they leave you with a kiss; if you meet any one, the first salutation is a kiss, in short, wherever you go, kisses every where abound; which, my Faustus, did you but once taste, how very sweet and how very fragrant they are, you would not, like Solon, wish for a ten years exile in England, but would desire there to spend the whole of your life."

Antonio Peres, secretary to the embassy from Philip the second, of Spain, writes thus to the Earl of Essex:

"I have this day, according to the custom of your country, kissed at an entertainment seven females, all of them accomplished in mind, and beautiful in person."

It may be worth while to enquire a little more into the modes of salutation practised by different nations, for which reason the following letter of Antonio of Guevara seems worthy of attention, written to his most intimate friend Francis de Mendoza bishop of Valence.

"I have received your letter, in which you require of me to point out and explain to you some of the more elegant



elegant modes of saluting and taking leave. With respect to the thing itself, although it is no mean accomplishment at court, to render to every one the particular degree of honour which is due, yet this question is altogether so new to me, that I have never either reflected on it myself, nor sought for the description of it in books: I nevertheless think it of serious consequence to ascertain both what expressions and what mode of behaviour we should use in civilized life, and especially in the interchange of salutations. Certain it is that we do not fail to remark of those who do not uncover their heads, who do not rise from their seats on the entrance of strangers, who do not advance to meet them coming towards them, or finally, who do not address every one by his proper title, that they are either deficient in politeness, or are characterized by pride and insolence. But in what precise manner we should receive or take leave of strangers, I certainly am not able to prescribe with any decision, since nothing on this subject is to be learnt from books, but every thing relating to it must depend on the customs of each particular country, and the rank of individuals. But that I may in some degree comply with your request, I will explain in a few words what has formerly been the custom, and what now prevails among ourselves. The people of Idumæa used this form of salutation to those they met, "The Lord be with you." The ancient Hebrews thus addressed each other, "Hail! my brother." The Greek sophists exclaimed, "All hail." The Romans, when they met, said, "God save you;" when they took leave, it was "Farewell." The Carthaginians said nothing, but saluted each other with a kiss. The Turks at this day use no other salutation than that when they meet they kiss each other's shoulders; when they take leave, they kiss each other's knees or vest. But to enumerate all these peculiarities would be endless. In Italy, as also in other places, the mode of salutation varies with the times of the day: but of all the customs in use among the Italians,

French, or Spaniards, none seems to me more absurd and preposterous than their saying "Beso los manos de vestra merced," and also, "Beso los pies de vestra sennoria." Again they say, "Yo soy siervo y esclavo perpetuo de vestra casa."

As to kissing the hand, the idea is filthy; and that of kissing the feet much more so. To what indelicate uses are not the hands applied! and as to the feet, how often, and how disagreeably are they contaminated by dust and sweat, &c. For my part, I would sooner eat the meanest part either of ox or sheep, than kiss either the hands or the feet of the most elegant and polished courtier. You have little scruple, I suppose, in believing that in the courts of princes, numbers are to be met who profess an ambition to kiss those very hands and feet they would be heartily glad to mutilate and cut in pieces. One will say to another, "I am much your friend." "Ever command my services." "Use me as your second self." "I shall do whatever you please." "I kiss your hands or your feet," &c. &c. But if we would imitate our Saviour, rather than affect any profane adulation, we shall not hastily use any other salutation than what Christ himself used and taught his disciples, namely, "Peace be unto you," and "Peace be to this house;" sending all these court compliments, and those who use them, to the Antipodes."

Elius Lampridius has the expression of "ore ad oscula parato;" this is said of one who has prominent lips, lips ready to give or receive kisses.

In matrimony, "uxorem adorare" is synonymous with "osculari." Thus Afranius uses "adorare" in Nonius Marcellus.

It was formerly the custom to kiss by putting ear to ear, as appears by the following epigram:

Oscula posco, meis tu libas auribus aures  
Nostra tuis tundens tempora temporibus.

Oscula ab ore ipso veniant, non oscula dicas  
Hæc igitur, dicas scilicet auriculas.

Silvianus Massiliensis, in one of his epistles, has this expression: "Kiss  
the

the feet of your parents like a maid servant, their hands as a pupil, their lips as a daughter."

It was a custom among the ancients, to place infants just born on the ground, whence the parents or the next in blood affectionately raised

them up, and in proof of benevolence and affection impressed a kiss upon their lips. To the circumstance of placing them upon the ground, Juvenal alludes, when he says:

*Infantem tollis? foribus suspende coronam  
Jam pater es*—

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### CHIOMARA AND LUCRETIA.

**C**HIOMARA, the wife of Ortiagon, a Gaulish prince, was equally admirable for her beauty and chastity. During the war between the Romans and the Gauls, A. R. 563, the latter were totally defeated on Mount Olympus. Chiomara, among many other ladies, was taken prisoner, and committed to the care of a centurion, no less passionate for money than women. He, at first, endeavoured to gain her consent to his infamous desires; but not being able to prevail upon her, and subvert her constancy, he thought he might employ force with a woman whom misfortune had reduced to slavery. Afterwards, to make her amends for that treatment, he offered to restore her liberty; but not without ransom. He agreed with her for a certain sum, and, to conceal this design from the other Romans, he permitted her to send any of the prisoners she should choose to her relations, and assigned a place near the river where the lady should be exchanged for gold. By accident there was one of her own slaves amongst the prisoners. Upon him she fixed: and the centurion soon after carried her beyond the advanced posts, under cover of a dark night. The next evening two of the relations of the princess came to the place appointed, whither the centurion also carried his captive. When they had delivered him the Attic talent they had brought, which was the sum they had agreed on, the lady, in her own language, ordered those who came to receive her to draw their swords and kill the centurion, who was then amusing himself with weighing the gold. Then, charmed with having revenged the injury done her chastity,

she took the head of the officer, which she had cut off with her own hands, and, hiding it under her robe, went to her husband Ortiagon, who had returned home after the defeat of his troops. As soon as she came into his presence, she threw the centurion's head at his feet. He was strangely surprised at such a sight; and asked her whose head it was, and what had induced her to do an act so uncommon to her sex? With a face covered with a sudden blush, and at the same time expressing her fierce indignation, she declared the outrage which had been done her, and the revenge she had taken for it.

During the rest of her life, she steadfastly retained the same attachment for the purity of manners which constitutes the principal glory of the sex, and nobly sustained the honour of so glorious, bold, and heroic, an action.

This lady was much more prudent than Lucretia, who was brutally ravished by Tarquin, because she revenged her injured honour by the death of her ravisher, rather than by her own. Plutarch relates this fact, in his treatise upon the virtue and great actions of women; which is well worthy of being transmitted to posterity.

The father and husband of Lucretia tried to comfort her with representing, "That the mind only sins, not the body; and where the consent is wanting there can be no guilt." "What Tarquin deserves," replies Lucretia, "I leave you to judge; but for me, though I declare myself innocent of the crime, I exempt not myself from punishment. No modest woman shall plead Lucretia's example to outlive her dishonour." Thus saying, she plunged into her breast



breast a dagger she had concealed under her robe, and expired at their feet.

Lucretia's tragical death has been praised and extolled by pagan writers, as the highest and most noble act of heroism. It is however murder, even according to Lucretia's own principles, since she punished with death an innocent person, at least, declared herself to be so. She was ignorant that our life is not in our own power, but in his disposal from whom we receive it.

A celebrated author, speaking of Lucretia's death, considers it not as a

courageous action, flowing from a true love of chastity, but as an infirmity of a woman too sensible of worldly fame and glory; and who, from a dread of appearing in the eyes of men an accomplice of the violence she abhorred, and of a crime to which she was a stranger, commits a real crime upon herself voluntarily and designedly. But what cannot be sufficiently admired in this Roman lady is her abhorrence of adultery, which she seems to hold so detestable as not to bear the thoughts of it. In this sense, she is a noble example for all her sex.

### THE PROPHECIES OF RICHARD BROTHERS.—Book II.

*Of the Prophecy which relates to the present Time of the World, the present War, and the approaching Distress of all Nations.—Daniel, chap. VII.*

2. **D**ANIEL spake and said; I saw in my vision by night, and behold, the four winds of the heaven strove on the great sea.

3. And four great beasts came up from the sea, different one from another.

4. The first was like a lion, and it had eagle's wings: I beheld till the wings were plucked, when it was lifted up on the earth, and made stand on the feet as a man; and a man's heart was given to it.

The lion means George III. the present king of England; plucking the wings of the lion, means taking away the power of the king; made stand on the feet as a man; with a man's heart, means his reduction to the condition of other men, and possessing similar thoughts.

It is more than twenty months since I first wrote to the king, queen, and minister of state, to inform them of many things that would come to pass; that the time was nearly accomplished for some of the judgments of God to be made manifest, and also that this prophecy was fulfilling. I beseeched them, in the most earnest and respectful language, not to join in the war on any account whatever, or even encourage it; for the death of Louis XVI. would be impossible to prevent, it was recorded, and could not be avoided; the revolution in

France, and its consequences, proceeded entirely from the judgment of God to fulfil this prophecy of Daniel; therefore all attempts to overthrow the judgment, and preserve the monarchy by force, was opposing what was determined in the scripture of truth should most certainly take place.

The aspect of the war was delusive; the encouragements of success that it held out to princes were deceitful; but those encouragements of delusion were permitted, to bring many nations under the judgment of God, and punish them for the heavy guilt of opposing his decrees.

If many had no more to fight against than a few men alone, or nations but one divided nation to subdue, then it might with reason be expected that the greatest number would soon overcome the least, and that many strong nations would soon conquer a weak one; but it is many men fighting against the spirit of God, and strong nations labouring in vain with their blood and treasure to overthrow his judgment.

The Lord God permits this opposition for three years and a half, to fulfil the determined part of this prophecy on all that oppose it; that done, his judgments will take place, to punish man and lay waste kingdoms,

5. And, behold, another beast; a second, like a bear: and it raised itself up on one side, with three ribs in its mouth between its teeth; and they said thus to it,—Arise, devour much flesh.

This verse means the present Empress of Russia. She is, according to the judgment of God in this prophecy, decreed to suffer death; and by revelation I am informed it will be done by the hands of man.

6. After this I beheld, and lo, another like a leopard, which had on its back four wings of a fowl; the beast had also four heads, and dominion was given to it.

The leopard means Louis XVI. king of France: the wings of a fowl on its back is, like the eagle's on the lion, an allusion to the king's great moveable power.

The fall of this monarch from a throne, and afterwards suffering death, to fulfil the judgment of God by his prophet Daniel, was impossible for all the armies of Europe to prevent; equally so as the decreed death of Charles I. king of England, which is mentioned by St. John in the thirteenth chapter and third verse of the Revelation; the deadly wound being healed, in the same verse, means the recovery of monarchy by the restoration of Charles II.

7. After this I saw in the night visions a fourth beast; and, behold, it was dreadful, and terrible, and strong exceedingly; and it had great iron teeth: it devoured, broke in pieces, and stamped on the residue, (meaning the electors,) with its feet; it was different from all the beasts that were seen before, and it had ten horns.

This great beast, so different from the others, means the Emperor of Germany; the ten horns mean the electors or princes of the empire.

In one part of this chapter the horns are denominated kings; the reason is, they raise armies, go to war, and govern with absolute power, like them; but, notwithstanding, they all acknowledge the emperor as their chief, and, under that acknowledgement of subjection, are solemnly engaged to defend his empire when

called on. For which, to conceal the meaning of the prophecy, until the fulness of time comes and the appointed person for it to be revealed to, the vision represents the German princes as horns of defence, belonging to the emperor's head.

It devoured, broke in pieces, and stamped on the residue with its feet; means the entire destruction of the German electors, and the possession of their territories by the emperor: he will destroy them, and also spread his dominion over Italy; threatening at the same time all Europe, and despising its kings with their feeble efforts to oppose him. Rome will fall under his power, and so will Venice likewise; the former will be re-taken by the French republic, but the latter will be plundered and almost destroyed. After this, to fulfil the prophecy and judgment of God, he will suffer death from the hands of man.

The orders of the emperor in the Netherlands are, that if the Austrian army should be defeated, (and it most surely will,) to acknowledge the French republic, and make an immediate peace on the best terms that can be obtained: the interests of other nations will not be much consulted; time, the threats of a victorious enemy, and the perilous condition of the German army, will not admit the least delay.

The English will sharply remonstrate against this conduct; for which their army, however incredible it may appear to the government now, will be surrounded, disarmed, and commanded to depart; but their general will be detained by the Austrians, and, by revelation of God to me, he falls to the ground.

The emperor, being exhausted of money by the war, determines, now he has made peace with the French and quarrelled with the English, to execute the plan he has for some time conceived the hopes of being one day able to accomplish; his father and uncle, strange as it may appear, yet it is most certainly true, (for I am informed by revelation,) conceived the same design, and believed the attempt easily practicable when the opportunity



portunity offered; which is, the reduction of all Germany under the sole government of himself.

He begins with seizing on the electorate of Hanover, and plundering it quite bare; after this success, his ambition for more extensive dominion will rise; it will now lead him boldly forward to subject and devour them all. For God to fulfil his judgments and this prophecy of Daniel in the seventh chapter, will deliver him over to be governed by the secret but powerful workings of an evil spirit, because his inclinations are bad; according to all that I informed the king and queen of, in May and June, 1792; as he did Ahab king of Israel, to accomplish his fall, and the entire destruction of his family.

The emperor's council will be filled with the same delusive evil spirit, that they may concur with him, and possess the same violent inclination for war and human destruction as himself. At this time a fresh decree will be issued from Vienna, commanding all Germany, and all the people under his government, as he conquers them by fire and sword, to offer solemn prayers up to the Lord God, for the further success of his imperial majesty's arms, the entire destruction of his enemies, and the preservation of himself:—styling him, in blasphemy against God, their most gracious, just, and merciful, sovereign Lord.

The other nations of Europe, afraid and trembling, will as solemnly implore the same Lord God, for peace and safety against such a cruel enemy; forgetting that it was but a little time before they were praying in the same strain of blasphemy as himself:—(to destroy their enemies, and give success to their arms:)—to that very gracious and compassionate God who sealed the redemption of man with his own blood, and strictly commanded all nations, as his children and people, to live in peace and brotherly love.

Opposition is in vain;—he goes through the principalities like a flood, and collects in his progress a mighty army. The course of this prophecy

is, that he shall conquer and destroy all before him; therefore he certainly will, and take away the treasure of many wealthy cities likewise.

After this, to finish oppression and fulfil the decreed judgment of God, the French republic will be raised against him; his army will be entirely overthrown in Italy, and himself will be compelled to seek shelter among the very people whose relations he destroyed, whose towns he plundered and burnt, but a little time before. This is Francis, the present reigning emperor of Germany, who is described in chapter vii. ver. 7. of the prophecy of Daniel, as great, strong, and terrible; stamping under his feet with contempt, and destroying all the princes round him. His ambition will increase with his dominion, and his conquests will be so wonderful for a short time as to make all Europe tremble; his end is miserable; and, as he treated others without mercy, no mercy will be shewn to him. His death by the hands of man is certain, because decreed; and his punishment everlasting, because recorded. To be related to him now will be considered hereafter as a capital crime.

8. I considered the horns, and behold there came up among them another little horn, before whom there were three of the first horns plucked up by the roots; and behold, in this horn were eyes like the eyes of man, and a mouth speaking great things.

This little horn, that grows great, and becomes so ambitious as to pluck up three of the other horns, to extend his own dominion, is the present King of Prussia. He is one of the imperial electors, and to fulfil exactly what the visions of God describe him to be, he confidently calls himself in great words—the preponderating member of the Germanic body.

The King of Prussia will acknowledge the French republic, and also make peace with it. He will oppose the emperor, and likewise follow his example; by which his dominions, to fulfil the prophecy, will be enlarged, (comparatively for a moment only,) by the addition of three electorates, when the bear, (meaning Russia,)

watching

watching for an opportunity, will rise and devour Prussia at one side, while the emperor destroys him at the other. His armies will be defeated, and his capital set on fire by the bear; his life will be taken away from the earth, and his monarchy, to fulfil the everlasting decrees of the Lord God in the prophecy of Daniel, will be destroyed,—never, never, to be restored any more.

Russia will assist the emperor in the beginning, to promote her favourite design of destroying the Turkish empire. She will also quarrel with the Poles, and devour great numbers of them: Warsaw will be set on fire, and the government entirely changed. At this time the Russian army, or bear, as if impatient for its food, (to rise and devour much flesh,) will enter Turkey, and comparatively run over the land,—treading down and devouring with great fury all opposition in its way. At the capital it stops; here are its decreed bounds; no farther must it go. Here the Russian general divides the spoils of many cities with his army, and the rich provinces of Turkey between his officers. Here he despises the oath of fidelity, and throws away the submission of a subject,—proclaiming himself emperor of Greece.

After this the Swede will enter Russia, and destroy with great fury; even the ships of war and capital will not escape. The Russian empire will be convulsed in many parts by its generals and governors, each rising up in his place, and claiming an authority to command the other:—they will fight until great multitudes are destroyed, and the country be made desolate. The imperial family will all be cut off, and no successor will for ever after arise; the government at the same time will be broken to pieces, and utterly dissolved;—never, never to be restored any more.

The Spanish monarchy will cease by this war, and the stadtholdership of Holland will be cut off close to the ground, according to the visions of God to me, in 1792; and which I communicated at that time by his sacred command to the King and Queen of England.

The King of Sardinia will be dethroned, and the popedom destroyed for ever, according to the revelation of God to me; and which I communicated to the English prime minister before the war with France was entered into; concluding what I wrote with these words:—"It is not all the navy of England, nor the armies of Europe united, can prevent the King of Sardinia from being dethroned.

The death of the French king, as one of the particular number mentioned in the seventh chapter of Daniel decreed to die, took place to fulfil the pre-determined judgment of God by this prophet; the monarchy of France is likewise, by the same judgment, abolished for ever, and the present form of government established. Therefore marvel no more that it cannot be conquered by all the armies without, nor destroyed by all the commotions within; if it could by human power, the horn (meaning the King of Prussia) would be the allotted man to accomplish it; for the meaning of the prophecy is, he shall prevail against France for three years and a half, but not to conquer the whole. He would have faithfully kept with his army in France the promises he made with his mouth on entering it; which were to deliver the towns for plunder, and the people for death, if he was opposed. It is for this that he is described by Daniel, to have a mouth speaking great things and blasphemies. All this would have been permitted, because recorded, to fulfil the prophecy; to hasten his own destruction, and the general fall of European monarchy.

The Dutch will acknowledge the French republic, and also make a hasty peace with it;—the Portuguese will do the same.

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*To the King and Parliament of Great Britain.*

Hear what the Lord God additionally says to me by revelation, and commands me to write. France seeing England left alone, deserted by all her allies, will require, as the conditions of peace—an acknowledgment of



of the republic, a restoration of the colonies, and the ships taken away from Toulon. For a short time he will permit England, as he will Russia and Germany, to succeed in the acquisition of delusive conquest, but it is the better—the more effectually, and more imperceptibly to human foresight, to accomplish his judgment on her, according to the prophecy of Daniel and Revelation of St. John; after that short time is expired, which is nearly so now, new enemies will rise up, some warring against her openly, others privately; all will prevail, until she, that sits now as a queen among the nations, is, according to the vision of God in my first book, without a covering on her head, worn thread-bare—and rent in many places.

Will England continue this war any longer against a people that has the judgment of God in their favour? Will she by a continuance of the present war against France, enter into another for the safety of Hanover against the Emperor of Germany, who will be rendered invincible for a time, as a scourge to fulfil the recorded judgments of God? Will she continue this war any longer for her destruction, that she may enter into a fresh one with America to hasten it? Is the King of England so regardless of his own life and the preservation of his family, as to involve them with himself in certain misery and death, by a longer continuance of this war? Is the government, the parliament, the clergy and people, so insensible to the blessings of peace and the happiness of fortune, as to prefer the absolute certainty of losing all they possess, and being destroyed themselves, to support a war which in its consequences, to fulfil the judgment of God, is designed shall throw down for ever the English monarchy; and from the confusion it will make throughout the country, involve almost every family of wealth in beggary and death!

Are you, William Pitt, to whom I wrote in May and June, 1792, informing you of the consequences of this war to your country when the war was not intended, so insensible to

your own preservation and the benefit of your brother, as to continue any longer a war, that will involve both you and him in certain death. What I acquainted you with in 1792, and often since, was made known to me by visions and revelations from the Lord God. The death of Louis XVI. and the removal of the English crown from the king's head to a level with the ground, according to the seventh chapter of Daniel; the fall of the queen's palace, and the destruction of the tower; your own removal from administration, and afterwards death, were among the things which I informed you of would most certainly come to pass as the evil consequences of this delusive war. My account to you then of futurity concluded with these words—"The visions are established, and the things mentioned most certain and true."

When I informed you that England would enter into this war, and the consequences which would in despite of all your efforts flow from it, you despised me; for at that time the war was not intended; and to tell of evils that would most certainly ensue from a thing, when the thing they were to proceed from was not designed, were to you the effects of folly and deceit.

My knowledge of future things is given me from God; therefore what I wrote was true.—A little time longer, and England will be so much entangled as not to be able to go forward without feeling the pains of that colonial conquest which is to be the cause of her death; nor to retire, without falling under that foreign blow, which will break the empire in pieces, and throw herself down on the ground; from whence she is never to rise up any more.

Neither evil can be prevented, and both will take place to fulfil the judgment of God, according to the prophecy of Daniel and Revelation of St. John; unless what I write is believed to be true, and the advice I give is strictly followed. Fleets and armies are great things to talk of, because terrible to destroy mankind; but, when opposed by the power of heaven, they become weak, they  
lose

lose their force and terror; for most of those in Europe are destined for the rocks and flames. They are permitted to conquer a little for a short time now, but it is, like Russia and Germany, to hasten that dreadful fall of human government which will soon take place in the world: for they ever have been in the hand of God, the very instruments to effect what princes designed them to prevent.

On the 12th of the month called May, 1792, I wrote to the king, minister of state, and speaker of the commons, that no person should be able to say hereafter my conduct was irregular, or in the least disrespectful; to inform them that I was commanded by the Lord God to go to the parliament-house on the seventeenth following, and acquaint the members, for their own personal safety and general benefit of the country, that the time of the world was come to fulfil the seventh chapter of the prophecy of Daniel, and some of the judgments of God in the Revelation; that the death of Louis XVI. and the revolution in France for the perpetual destruction of its monarchy, was decreed in the scripture of truth, and would, against all human opposition, most surely take place. To inform them that the war just going to be commenced by Prussia and Austria against France, was the very war alluded to by St. John, in the nineteenth chapter of the Revelation, which God called a war against himself; because it went to oppose his decrees, and because it would be an effort of kings to overthrow his unalterable judgment. I was commanded to advise them, as I was the king and minister of state, not to join in the war, or encourage it on any account whatever. To inform them of the approaching fall of monarchy in Europe, the great distress this war would be productive of to all nations, but particularly to those that engaged in it: and likewise to inform them of their own sudden fall into the jaws of the earth by a pre-determined earthquake, according to the judgment of God in chapter xvi. verse 16, 17, 18, and 19, of the Revelation; and lastly,

to entreat them to acknowledge this gracious communication from God for their length of life and blessing, by an obedience to his good advice.

When at the door on the seventeenth, I informed the speaker by a letter that I waited, and was ready to communicate all that I was commanded. In a few minutes after a messenger returned with my own letter, who treated me, in such a public place particularly, with unfeeling contempt and incivility. The Lord God spoke to me, instantly, on being ordered to go about my business, and said—Get away, get away from this place; be under no concern, it was not you that was despised and ordered away, but me in your person that sent you.

Soon after my return home I was in a vision, and saw a large measuring-rod move through the streets in great haste, and strike many of the houses as it passed, marking them for their approaching fall. After this I was made to look towards the treasury, while the Lord God pronounced at the same time—All that side shall fall. In an instant, the whole place was covered with thick darkness, it seemed to be everlasting darkness; darkness that should never be removed: and again, he pronounced in quick words, as if displeased—The whole shall fall.

The information, as will be plainly seen by the date, which I gave to the king and minister of state, with what I was commanded to offer to the parliament, was not only before the present war with France was entered into, but also some length of time before it was ever intended: therefore no person can say with justice, that either my conduct in obeying the positive commands of God, or my endeavours to preserve peace—to preserve this country from the many evils it has now to encounter with, according to the determined judgment of unerring prophecy, originated from weak ideas or political motives. No, my knowledge is given from God; I see all things now as they truly are, and know their consequences to change them to what they really will be hereafter.

[To be continued.]

TESTIMONY



## TESTIMONY OF N. B. HALHEAD, Esq. M. P. for Lymington, Hants.

THE prophecies and revealed knowledge communicated to the world by Richard Brothers, having generally attracted public notice, I think it my duty to state some of them as they have been already fulfilled, and let the world judge of them according to their own knowledge and belief. The truth of them ought to be carefully examined. That such a man will come there can be no doubt of, and is expressly mentioned, Jerem. xxviii. 9. "The prophet which prophesieth of peace; when the word of the prophet shall come to pass, then shall the prophet be known, that the Lord hath truly sent him." Richard Brothers prophesieth of universal peace, that shortly will be restored to all kingdoms upon earth.

Book II. page 21. Richard Brothers says, "Are you William Pitt, to whom I wrote in May and June, 1792, informing you of the consequences of this war to your country, p. 13. when the war was not intended, and of the death of Louis the XVIth, which was impossible to prevent."

P. 13. By the same example, if the French army was to be defeated, even again and again, it should recover and conquer likewise.

P. 41. At the time of my writing to the King of England, relative to the King of Prussia, I informed him, as I was commanded, of the certain failure of the combined armies of Prussia and Austria.

P. 17. The King of Prussia will acknowledge the French republic, and also make peace with it.

P. 18. Russia will also quarrel with the Poles, and devour great numbers of them; Warsaw will be set on fire, and the government entirely changed.

The above has been too fully and too fatally fulfilled surely for any one to deny. Prussia was not able to conquer the Poles; but Russia, the destined power, according to the above-mentioned prophecies, soon conquered them.

The relative events which have also taken place, in which the King of Prussia and the empress have been concerned, have a wonderful analogy to the denunciations of the prophet.

The war ensued. On the 21st of January, 1793, the King of France was beheaded. This prophecy has been fulfilled, though foretold us so long before-hand.

On the 1st of October 1792, the Duke of Brunswick retreated, after he had been expected at Paris in two or three days; but ever since the allied armies have retreated, and been beaten beyond any example in the annals of history; and few will now, I believe, assert that they can ever re-penetrate France, and restore monarchy.

This has been completely fulfilled: the peace between France and Prussia was ratified and signed in March, 1795.

In the Leyden Gazette, Dec. 26, 1794, it says, in the account from Warsaw, "That the attack began at five o'clock in the morning; at nine the enemy was in possession of the place. Five thousand Poles were slain in the assault, the remaining five thousand were taken prisoners or dispersed. After this was over, and every thing appeared to be quiet, ten hours after all resistance had ceased, about nine o'clock at night, they set fire to the town, and began to butcher the inhabitants. The sick and wounded perished in the flames; the rest, old men, women, and children, fell by the sword. Nine thousand persons of every age and both sexes, are computed to have fallen in the massacre; and the whole of the suburbs, except a few scattered houses, was reduced to ashes.

P. 19. The Spanish monarchy will cease by this war, and the stadtholdship of Holland will be cut off close to the ground, according to the visions of God to me in 1792, and which I communicated at that time, by his sacred commands, to the King and Queen of England.

On the 27th of June, 1792, I wrote to the French ambassador, then in London, by command of the Lord God, acquainting him with the future loss of the French islands, and likewise the fall of the English.

P. 70. After this I was in a vision in the month of January, 1792, and was carried away by the spirit of God to Sweden, &c. The King of Sweden is delivered over for death, and that is the very man that will shoot him.

P. 71. And, when you write hereafter of other things in this country, you will be called an impostor, a fool, and a liar.

When I see this it will make me angry; I will then begin to kill the people, and I shall surely destroy this city.

P. 92. October 26, 1794, the Lord God commands me to say to you, William Bryan, that you are appointed and will be commanded by him, to testify publicly to the world who I now am, and what my future designation is. The Lord God will influence and command numbers of his people, both men and women, to give the same public testimonies.

P. 102. October 26, 1794. He informed the English government, judges, &c. that the prisoners now in confinement, and on trial for their lives, &c. are innocent.

These things, having been already fulfilled, ought to be a caution to every body how they deny revelation and prophecy; and it behoves every person to examine into the revealed prophecies very carefully, and judge impartially; Acts v. 39. "But if these things be of God, ye cannot overthrow them." Richard Brothers stands in the Court Calendar as a naval officer, Jan. 3, 1783.—Surely then his character and behaviour during his continuance in the navy are very easily to be enquired by those that doubt his sanity. Because he quotes scripture and believes in God, is too ridiculous, one would think, for any person to set him down either as an impostor or a madman. If he has not written those letters to government, as he asserts, then he is a false prophet, and the *onus probandi* lies with the ministers, &c. If those letters are established, I think his prophecies coming true absolutely prove him a true prophet. I have taken every step to detect him in imposition or madness, but cannot in either.

Holland is entirely conquered, and the stadtholder is now in this country!—A most astonishing verification of the words of the prophet, contained in a letter to the royal family at St. James's.

The French islands have been conquered by the English, according to the former part of this prophecy. The latter part remains to be fulfilled.

The King of Sweden was accordingly shot at a masquerade, March 10, and died March 29, 1792.—This is likewise an astonishing verification of the prophecy.

Richard Brothers was taken up by government March 4, 1795; that he has been reckoned an impostor by many the world itself must allow.

Mr. Halhead published his testimony Jan. 29, 1795.

Mr. Bryan published his testimony Feb. 10, 1795; wherein he acknowledges that he was compelled by the spirit to write, being against his natural will. Several others have published and are publishing their testimonies. Many also have given their testimonies by letter. John Wright published his testimony Aug. 1, 1794.

The prisoners were all tried and acquitted; the consequent innocence is therefore manifest.

N. B. HALHEAD.

POETRY.



## S E L E C T P O E T R Y.

## ON OPENING THE CAMPAIGN.

**T**HE trumpet calls aloud to arms,  
Sound, which the hero's bosom  
warms;

Tender lovers, gallant friends,  
On us your happiness depends;  
The day which follows victory  
Happy beyond all days shall be;  
When Love to Glory shall dispense,  
Glory to Love its recompense.

In vain the faithful lover sighs,  
Unnotic'd by his charmer's eyes;  
But who a conqueror can see,  
And still a cruel mistress be?  
Heroes! tell those for whom ye burn,  
They must be conquer'd in their turn;  
Glory from Beauty shall receive  
That which to Love it will not give.

Honour and Love our only pride,  
Ye must our future fate decide;  
On those whose hearts ye cause to glow,  
Or Death or Victory bestow.  
O! grant that we may nobly die,  
Or hear returning passers by  
Exclaim what Love to Glory owes,  
And what on Glory Love bestows.

## THE NEGRO BOY.

The African Prince lately arrived in England, being asked what he had given for his Watch, answered, "What I will never give again; I gave a fine Boy for it."

**W**HEN avarice enslaves the mind,  
And selfish views alone bare sway;  
Man turns a savage to his kind,  
And blood and rapine mark his way.  
Alas! for this poor simple toy,  
I sold a blooming Negro Boy.

His father's hopes, his mother's pride,  
Tho' black, yet comely to the view;  
I tore him helpless from their side,  
And gave him to a ruffian crew:  
To fiends that Afric's coast annoy,  
I sold the blooming Negro Boy.

From country, friends, and parents, torn,  
His tenders limbs in chains confin'd;  
I saw him o'er the billows borne,  
And mark'd his agony of mind.  
But still to gain this simple toy,  
I gave away the Negro Boy.

In isles that deck the western waves,  
I doom'd the hapless youth to dwell;  
A poor forlorn insulted slave,  
A beast the Christians buy and sell;  
And in their cruel tasks employ  
The much enduring Negro Boy.

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His wretched parents long shall mourn,  
Shall long explore the distant main,  
In hopes to see the youth return;  
But all their hopes and sighs are vain.  
They never will the sight enjoy  
Of their lamented Negro Boy.

Beneath a tyrant's harsh command,  
He wears away his youthful prime;  
Far distant from his native land,  
A stranger in a foreign clime.  
No pleasing thoughts his mind employ;  
A poor dejected Negro Boy.

But He, who walks upon the wind,  
Whose voice in thunder's heard on high,  
Who doth the raging tempests bind,  
Or wings the light'ning thro' the sky;  
In his own time will sure destroy  
Th'oppressors of the Negro Boy.

## O D E O N T R U T H.

**W**HEN Fancy paints with Nature's  
simplest hues,  
And Music's soul-entrancing concords  
join,

There shall my numbers hail the modest  
Muse,

As fervently she pours the generous line!  
While noblest thoughts mine ardent soul  
inspire,  
To catch a glimpse of Truth, and glow  
with nature's fire.

O Truth! pure virtue's uncorrupted source!  
How long shall art refract thy glorious  
rays;

Or prejudice repel thy genuine force,  
Till mortal eyes can scarce endure the  
blaze?

How impious thus to quit the heavenly  
light  
For Folly's idle glare and tapers of the  
night!

Ye, in whose bosoms passion holds its sway,  
Whom wild ambition prompts to raise  
a name;

Who, wandering far from Nature's sober  
way,  
Would rush impetuous to the mount of  
Fame;

Know, while the steep with eager steps ye  
climb,  
That Truth must give you strength, *Truth  
only is sublime.*

Whether ye mingle with th'exstic throng  
Who thrill with skilful touch the sound-  
ing wire;

Or dare the loftiest flights of heavenly song;  
Or to the painter's noble art aspire;

I  
Whate'er

Whate'er the path, whatever means be-  
try'd,  
Nature and Truth your steps must always  
guide.

Yet art thou hid, fair Truth, from human  
eyes ;

Existing pure, yet ne'er unfullied found.  
O! clear those clouds which still infest our  
skies,

Dissolve those specious shows which still  
confound,

Burst every limit which obstructs thy  
ray,

And to the mental eye unfold a cloudless  
day.

Thou, whom fraternal love and freedom  
fire,

Whose wide benevolence unbounded  
flows,

Whose unaffected Muse those truths in-  
spire

Which prove that Nature in thy bosom  
glows ;

Through thee has Truth shot forth her  
potent beam,

And simple Nature's praise resounded in  
thy theme.

That lyre, which sweetly tun'd its po-  
lish'd strain,

And sung of Pity, Liberty, and Peace,  
The Muses shall invite to strike again,

And may thy virtuous votaries still en-  
crease.

Still Truth, through thee, shall dart her  
purest rays,

And simple Nature woo thy modest plain-  
tive lays.

#### SOUND ARGUMENT.

BY MR. DIBDIN.

WE bipeds, made up of frail clay,  
Alas! are the children of sorrow;

For, though brisk and merry to-day,

We all may be wretched to-morrow.

For sunshine's succeeded by rain;

Then, fearful of life's stormy weather,

Left pleasure should only bring pain,

Let us all be unhappy together.

I grant the best blessing we know

Is a friend, for true friendship's a trea-  
sure ;

And yet, lest your friend prove a foe,

Oh! taste not the dangerous pleasure.

Thus friendship's a flimsy affair ;

Thus riches and health are a bubble ;

Thus there's nothing delightful but care,  
Nor any thing pleasing but trouble.

If a mortal would point out that life

That on earth would be nearest to  
heaven,

Let him, thanking his stars, choose a wife  
To whom truth and honour are given.

But honour and truth are so rare,

And horns when they're recutting so tingle,

That, with all my respect to the fair,

I'd advise him to sigh and live single.

It appears from these premises plain,

That wisdom is nothing but folly ;

That pleasure's a term that means pain,

And that joy is your true melancholy ;

That all those who laugh ought to cry ;

That 'tis fine frisk and fun to be griev-  
ing ;

And that, since we must all of us die,

We should taste no enjoyment while  
living.

#### ENGLAND compared with FRANCE.

WITH joy we turn to Albion's hap-  
pier plain,

Where ancient freedom holds her temp'-  
rate reign ;

Where justice sits majestic on her throne ;

Where mercy turns her ear to every groan ?

O Albion! fairest isle, whose verdant plain

Springs beauteous from the blue and bil-  
lowy main ;

In peaceful pomp whose glitt'ring cities  
rise,

And lift their crouded temples to the skies ;

Whose navy on the broad brine awful rolls ;

Whose commerce glows beneath the distant

poles ;

Whose streams reflect full many an Attic  
pile ;

Whose velvet lawns in strong luxuriance  
smile ;

Amid whose winding coombs contentment  
dwells ;

Whose vales rejoice to hear the sabbath  
bells ;

Whose humblest shed, that steady laws  
protect,

The villager with woodbine bow'rs hath  
deck'd ;

Sweet native land! whose every haunt is  
dear,

Whose every gale is music to mine ear ;

Amidst whose hills one poor retreat I  
fought,

Where I might sometimes hide a sadd'n-  
ing thought,

And having wander'd far, and mark'd  
mankind

In their vain mask, might rest and safety  
find :

Oh! still may freedom with majestic mien  
Pacing thy rock and the green vales be  
seen !

Around thy cliffs, that glitter o'er the  
main,

May smiling order wind her silver chain ;

Whilst from thy calm abodes, and azure  
skies,

Far off the fiend of discord murmuring  
flies !

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, April 28.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Sir J. B. Warren, Bart, of his Majesty's Ship La Pomone, dated off Falmouth, April 24, 1795, to Evan Nepean, Esq.*

UNTIL the 15th instant nothing material occurred; when a sail having been discovered in the N. E. the Isle de Rhe bearing E N. E. five leagues, I made the signal for a general chase, and at half past eight, A. M. the Artois brought her to. She proved to be Le Jean Bart, ship-corvette, of 26 guns, and 187 men.

On the 16th, having seen several sail a-head, gave chase with the Squadron, and at four P. M. Belleisle bearing N. eight leagues distant, came up with the rear of a convoy. A corvette-brig, passing us to leeward, exchanged a few shot, which carried away her studding-sails. Finding it impracticable to pursue her, she running close in shore, I stood after the rest, and at five P. M. brought to a brig and a sloop, which, being in ballast, were set on fire. The Galatea also, after exchanging a few shot, brought to a ship-corvette a-head, which proved to be L'Expedition, of 16 guns and 120 men, formerly a packet in our service.

The Artois also captured two sloops laden with fish. The rest of the convoy, with a frigate, standing in between the rocks, for Hedic and Quiberon Bay, escaped.

*Extract of a Letter from the same, dated April 25.*

In addition to the list of vessels taken and destroyed by the Squadron under my command, Capt. Nagle, of the Artois, acquaints me, that, on the evening we fell in with the last convoy off Belleisle, he chased a ship and brig upon the rocks, near the Island of Hedic, and that they were lost thereon.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, May 9.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain James Cotes, late of his Majesty's Ship Thames, dated Gisors, April 9, 1795, to the Secretary of the Admiralty.*

Thursday, the 24th of October 1793, lat. 47 deg. 2 min. N. long. 7 deg. 22 min. W. standing upon a wind to the southward, the wind at west-south-west, at half past nine o'clock A. M. saw a sail

bearing south; she hoisted a blue flag at the fore top-mast head, as a signal to a brig (as I suppose) that accompanied her, and then bore away before the wind. It came on very thick; upon its clearing up, at a quarter past ten o'clock, we perceived she hauled her wind, and made sail for us; cleared ship; at half past ten o'clock she fired a gun to windward, and hoisted French national colours. We were soon close, passing on contrary tacks; she fired her bow guns, and then a broadside, when she wore, and an action commenced, which continued until twenty minutes past two P. M. when the ship (which proved to be a French frigate) hauled off to the southward, making all the sail she could, but unfortunately leaving us in a condition unable to follow her. All our masts and bowsprit were shot through in a number of places, all our stays entirely shot away, all the main rigging shot away, and was hanging by the ratlines, (except two shrouds on one side, and three on the other,) but, on examination, the eyes of these were shot away above the top. The main topmast rigging was still more damaged, and the mast shot through in three places. The main-top sail yard was shot away in the slings by a double-headed shot; and the yard-arms came down before the main yard, the lifts, braces, &c. being all shot away; the slings, both iron and rope, besides the geers of the main-yard, were shot away; the yard hung by the trusses about a third mast down; the mainsail was cut to pieces, particularly the leech-ropes. The fore-mast had received nearly the same damage as the main-mast, with this difference, that the slings of the fore-yard remained aloft; the fore-topmast rigging, except one shroud on one side, and two on the other, was all shot away, with all the stays, back-stays, lifts, braces, tyes, haulyards, &c. the bowsprit shot through in several places, all the bob-stays and bowsprit-shrouds were cut by shot and langrage; the jib-stay and haulyards were cut away the first broadside. The mizen-mast was so wounded, and the rigging so cut to pieces, that I was obliged to lower the gaff after the action to prevent the mast's going over the side; the fore-part of the top was entirely shot away. I cannot pretend to enumerate the shot that were received in the hull; the most part of the gangways were shot away; the main-deck before the main-mast was torn up from the water way to the

the hatchways; the bits were shot away and unshipped; six shot between wind and water on the starboard, and three on the larboard, side; in short, when the enemy made sail, the ship was perfectly unmanageable, two guns on the main-deck and one on the quarter-deck were dismounted, almost all the tackle and breechings were carried away; in this situation I was obliged to put before the wind, to prevent the masts going over the side, as it began to freshen from the west-south-west. Whilst we were thus employed, three sail (large frigates) appeared, making all the sail they could, under English colours; it was impossible for me to alter our position, not being able to haul upon a wind, all our after-sail being shot away; and the runners, being carried forward, were crossed in order to serve both as stays and shrouds, and the ships had separated to prevent any such manoeuvre. Fearing they might be enemies, as I thought they were, I called the remaining officers together, and asked them whether, if they should prove enemies, it would answer any purpose to engage in the situation we were in. They were all of opinion, that to engage with such a superiority of force would answer no other end than the destruction of the remaining crew, and that we were cut off from all possibility of an escape. In this situation were we when the headmost passed us at a considerable distance, (still under English colours,) as if to reconnoitre our disabled state; shortly after she wore, and came under our stern, and gave us a broadside. Perceiving it was his intention to engage us in that manner, seeing us entirely deprived of the means of altering our course, I judged it necessary to bring to, and inform him, as the ship had already engaged, we were incapable of farther resistance, and consequently had yielded to their superior force. He desired us to send our boat; I told him it was impossible, as they were all unfit to be put into the water, and, if they were, we were unable to hoist them out; he, in consequence, sent his on-board of us, during which time the dispatches, together with all papers and letters that were on-board, were sunk.

Thus, Sir, has fallen into the hands of the enemy his majesty's ship *Thames* under my command; but I trust a court martial will convince their lordships and the country at large, that, although the misfortune has taken place, it was not until every exertion was found to be of no further avail.

The ship, after some of her crew were sent on-board the *Carmagnole*, was taken

in tow by her, and we anchored in Brest road the day following.

*A List of Officers, Seamen, and Marines, killed and wounded.*

**KILLED.**—James Davies; James Walklett; Thomas May, of the carpenter's crew; Jacob Ways, quarter-master; James Nailor; Robert Barnard; John Lancaster; Christopher Coy; and John Serres, captain's servant.

**WOUNDED.**—George Robinson, second lieutenant; Geo. Norris, master; David Valentine, master's mate; James Dale, midshipman; Grieve Doer; John Pilgrim; Peter Spring; John Want; George Dodd; John Smith, second; James Holliday, quarter gunner; John Ripley; Robert Wright; William Elliot; David Box; William Baldry; Isaac Youl; and Matthew Furnace.

**MARINES.**—**KILLED.**—James Knott.

**WOUNDED.**—William Greenhalgh, Jas. Tootall, James Lomax, James Bury Jones, Thomas Jackson.

**MISSING.**—Geo. Land, seaman, drowned.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Sir Richard Strachan, of his Majesty's Ship Melampus, dated Grouville Bay, Jersey, May 11, 1795, to Evan Neapen, Esq. Secretary of the Admiralty.*

I have the honour to acquaint you, for their lordships information, that Sir Sydney Smith, with the ships under his command, joined me on the 8th inst. at noon. About three o'clock in the morning of the 9th we discovered 13 sail coming from the northward along shore. I made the signal to weigh; the squadron weighed and gave chase, the wind being off the land, and the enemy's vessel running along shore to the southward. About six o'clock the *Melampus* got near enough to fire upon the headmost vessels, but they all, except a cutter, which escaped round Cape Carteret, (our gun-boats not being arrived at the rendezvous,) got close in shore, under a small battery, protected by their armed vessels, a brig and lugger. I made the signal for the boats to assemble on-board this ship for the purpose of boarding them, and worked the *Melampus* in to cover the attack, soon followed by the other ships as they came up, firing upon the enemy's battery and gun-vessels in succession. The enemy soon abandoned their vessels, and the boats of the squadron boarded and got them all off, except one small sloop, which was burnt, the tide having left her. About this time the battery ceased to fire. I beg to take this opportunity to acknowledge the assistance I have received from the zeal and activity



activity of the captains under my directions upon all occasions, and particularly upon the present; and also to observe, that the manner in which the lieutenants of the different ships boarded and brought off the vessels of the enemy does them infinite honour as officers, the first lieutenant of the *Melampus* bearing a conspicuous part; and the boats crews and different ships companies acted with their usual courage.

The accompanying is a list of the killed and wounded on-board the different ships, and also a list of the vessels of war and convoy taken.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R. J. STRACHAN.

*Return of Killed and Wounded.*

*Melampus.* 1 petty officer and 7 seamen wounded.

*Diamond.* 2 seamen wounded.

*Hebe.* Mr. John Leggatt (surgeon), and 2 seamen, wounded.

*Niger.* Mr. Long (2d lieutenant), and 1 seaman, wounded.

*Syren.* Mr. John M'Guffock (midshipman), and 1 marine, killed; and 2 seamen wounded.

*List of Vessels and Prisoners taken.*

1 gun brig; 3 guns, 18 pounds.

1 gun lugger; 3 guns, 18 pounds.—  
Had 3 men remaining on-board.

*List of the Convoy.*

*La Prosperite*, 80 tons burthen, laden with cordage.

*La Montagne*, 200, timber, lead, and tin-plates.

*La Catharine*, 200, ship-timber.

*L'Hirondelle*, 220, ship-timber and pitch.

*La Contente*, 250, powder.

*La Nymphe*, 120, wood for firing.

*La Bonne Union*, 150, ———

*La Fantazie*, 45, coals

*L'Alexandre*, 397, ship-timber, cordage, hemp, and cannon.

*La Sutil Neptune*, 113, ship-timber.

## DOMESTIC NEWS.

APRIL 23.

THE trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. which began on the 12th of February 1788, was finished this day. The hall was as much crowded as on the first day. Mr. Fox, and the rest of the managers came into their box at twelve o'clock. The peers entered the hall half an hour afterwards.

The peeresses' gallery was completely filled before one. The commons, with the speaker, came into their seats at half an hour after one. The stadtholder, with his lady and family, were received into the queen's apartment. The Turkish ambassador and his retinue sat in their seats. All the ambassadors from the several courts of Europe were present—a more awful appearance was never beheld. At two the procession moved into the house.

Proclamation being made in the usual way, Mr. Hastings and his bail came into the court, and were directed to withdraw.

The Lord Chancellor then stood up, and said, that the lords had upon Friday last resolved, that judgment should be given this day on the charges of high crimes and misdemeanors brought by the house of commons against Warren Hastings, Esq.

The following are the resolutions which they entered into, and the questions to be put to the lords severally:

Resolved, by the lords spiritual and temporal, in parliament assembled, that

the following questions be put to the lords in Westminster hall, viz.

I. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged by the commons in the first article of charge?

II. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged by the commons in the second article of charge?

III. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, so far as relates to the said Warren Hastings having, in the year 1772, 1773, and 1774, corruptly taken the several sums of money charged to have been taken by him in the said years, from the several persons in the said article particularly mentioned?

IV. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having, on or before the 26th of June 1780, corruptly received and taken from Sadanund, the buxey of the rajah Cheit Sing, the sum of two lacks of rupees as a present or gift?

V. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having, in October, 1780, taken and received from Kellaram, on behalf of himself and a certain person called Cullian Sing, a sum of money amounting

amounting to four lacks of rupees, in consideration of letting to them certain lands in the province of Bahar in perpetuity, contrary to his duty, and to the injury of the East-India company?

VI. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having, in the year 1781, received and taken, as a present from Nundoolol, the sum of fifty-eight thousand rupees?

VII. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having, on or about the month of September 1781, at Chunar, in the province of Oude, contrary to his duty, taken and received from the vizier the sum of ten lacks of rupees?

VIII. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the sixth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having first fraudulently solicited as a loan, and of his having afterwards corruptly and illegally taken and retained as a present or gift from Rajah Nobkissen, a sum of money amounting to thirty-four thousand pounds sterling; and of his having, without any allowance from the directors or any person authorised to grant such allowance, applied the same to his own use, under pretence of discharging certain expences said to be incurred by the said Warren Hastings in his public capacity?

IX. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having, in the year 1781, granted a contract for the provision of opium for four years, to Stephen Sullivan, Esq. without advertising for the same, and upon terms glaringly extravagant and wantonly profuse, for the purpose of creating an instant fortune to the said Stephen Sullivan.

X. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having borrowed money at a large interest, for the purpose of advancing the same to the contractor for opium, and engaging the East-India company in a smuggling adventure to China?

XI. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the com-

mons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to the contract for bullocks granted to Charles Croftes, Esq.

XII. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to his having granted the provision of bullocks to Sir Charles Blunt by the mode of agency?

XIII. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to the several allowances charged to have been made to Sir Eyre Coote, and directed to be paid by the vizier for the use of the said Eyre Coote?

XIV. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to the appointment of James Peter Auriol, Esq. to be agent for the purchase of supplies for the relief of the presidency of Madras, and all the other presidencies in India, with a commission of fifteen per cent?

XV. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged upon him by the commons in the fourth article of charge, in so far as relates to the appointment of John Belly, Esq. to be agent for the supply of stores and provisions for the garrison of Fort William in Bengal, with a commission of thirty per cent?

XVI. Is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of the residue of the high crimes and misdemeanors, or any of them, charged upon him by the impeachment of the commons?

The noble lord then began with the junior peer present, in the following manner:

George Lord Douglas, is Warren Hastings, Esq. guilty, or not guilty, of high crimes and misdemeanors, charged by the commons in the first article of charge?—Lord Douglas stood up, took off his hat, and, laying his right hand on his heart, pronounced—Not guilty, upon my honour.

The same question was then put to the following noble lords, who gave the verdict annexed to their names in the same form:

Lord Fife—Not guilty.  
Lord Somers—Not guilty.  
Lord Rawdon—Not guilty.  
Lord Thurlow—Not guilty.  
Lord Hawke—Not guilty.  
Lord Boston—Not guilty.

Lord



Lord Middleton—Not guilty.  
 Bishop of Rochester—Not guilty.  
 Bishop of Bangor—Not guilty.  
 Viscount Sydney—Not guilty.  
 Earl of Caernarvon—Guilty.  
 Earl of Suffolk—Guilty.  
 Earl Radnor—Guilty.  
 Earl Fitzwilliam—Guilty.  
 Earl of Warwick—Not guilty.  
 Earl of Coventry—Not guilty.  
 Marquis Townshend—Not guilty.  
 Duke of Bridgewater—Not guilty.  
 Earl Mansfield—Not guilty.  
 Duke of Leeds—Not guilty.  
 Duke of Norfolk—Guilty.  
 The Archbishop of York—Not guilty.  
 The Lord Chancellor—Guilty.

The second charge was then read by the Lord Chancellor, and the same votes were given; the third and fourth were the same. On the fifth, respecting a present from Cullian Sing for letting lands, the Lords Boston and Suffolk quitted their seats, and went behind the throne. The sixth and seventh articles were adjudged not guilty, with five dissenting votes. On the eighth, respecting thirty-four thousand pounds, being a present from Rajah Nobkissen, Earl Mansfield, with the other five peers, gave his vote—guilty. On the ninth, viz. Sullivan's contract for opium, Lord Walsingham gave his verdict, guilty. The tenth and eleventh, the court was unanimous: not guilty. On the twelfth and thirteenth, five peers voted, guilty. Earl Suffolk and Lord Boston returned, and, on the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth, questions, the numbers were eighteen to six. The Lord Chancellor voted guilty upon the last question.

As soon as they had gone through all the sixteen questions, Mr. Cowper the clerk, having collected the votes, gave the numbers to the Lord Chancellor. His lordship said, "My lords, and gentlemen of the house of commons, Warren Hastings, Esq. has been acquitted of the charge of high crimes and misdemeanors which have been preferred against him by a large majority of the peers.—Call in Mr. Hastings."

Sir Francis Molyneux went from his seat to conduct Mr. Hastings to the bar.

Lord Chancellor.—"Mr. Hastings, the house of lords, after a very minute investigation, have acquitted you of all the charges of high crimes and misdemeanors preferred against you by the commons, and every part thereof; and you and your bail are discharged upon paying your fees."

Mr. Hastings bowed very respectfully, and retired.

Mr. Hastings's trial has lasted nearly two sessions of parliament; has cost the kingdom nearly 250,000*l.* was brought before a house of peers consisting of 254 members; and, after all this expenditure of time, talent, and public money, when a verdict of guilty or innocent was to be given, it was given by only twenty-nine peers!

APRIL 28. Pursuant to an order from the lords commissioners of the admiralty, a court-martial was held this day on-board the *Glory* in Portsmouth harbour, to investigate Capt. Molloy's conduct on the 29th of May and 1st of June.

Vice-admiral Peyton, President.

———— Sir R. King,  
 ————— Buckner,  
 Rear-Admiral Colpoys,  
 Captain Græme,  
 ————— Parry,  
 ————— Mitchell,  
 ————— Parker,  
 ————— Pole,  
 ————— Hamilton,  
 ————— Sir E. Gower,  
 ————— Lord Fitzgerald,  
 ————— Dacres.

Judge-Advocate, Moses Greatham, Esq.  
 Prosecutor, Sir Roger Curtis.

Sir John Mitford, Aaron Graham, Esq. and ——— Fielding, Esq. were employed by Capt. Molloy to assist him during the court-martial.

The court first read the letters which had been written by Capt. Molloy and Lord Howe, in consequence of a paragraph that had appeared in the *Gazette* from his lordship, in which he insinuated a disapprobation of Capt. Molloy's conduct in the affair of the 29th of May and the 1st of June. The present trial was ordered by the board of admiralty, in consequence of these letters, and at Capt. Molloy's own particular desire.

After this, the minutes of the proceedings of several ships of Lord Howe's fleet were read, so far as related to the 29th of May and the 1st of June; among which were the minutes of the proceedings of the *Cæsar* on each of those days. In these it appeared that the signal had been given to chase, and that the *Cæsar* made a signal of inability so to do. In the proceedings of the *Cæsar*, it was stated, that at this time her main-sail was split, her rigging injured, and there was a heavy sea, so that she could neither tack nor cross the enemy's line, but failed along it exposed to all its fire. On the 1st of June her rudder was damaged by a shot.

Sir Roger Curtis informed the court, that the admiral (Earl Howe) was very ill, and confined with the gout, so that it

was

was impossible for him to attend as prosecutor on the present occasion. Capt. Molloy was very pressing to have his trial brought forward; in consequence of which, his lordship desired to know whether he (Sir Roger Curtis) would appear as prosecutor in his stead? to which he consented, having understood that Captain Molloy had no objection.

The court was then cleared, in order that it might be determined whether it was proper that Sir Roger Curtis should represent Lord Howe on the trial? and the decision of the court was in the affirmative.

Sir Roger Curtis then said, that Lord Howe would certainly appear during the course of the trial, if his health would permit him; and at the same time wished to know whether Capt. Molloy had the least objection to any other prosecutor coming forward in his stead.

Capt. Molloy declared it was indifferent to him who the prosecutor was. He had been for ten months kept in a state of suspense; his character had been calumniated; and no opportunity had been afforded him of vindicating his innocence. He could not think, therefore, of delaying a trial which he had so long and anxiously wished for.

The court then proceeded to the examination of witnesses.

The whole of the trial took up sixteen days. It concluded on Friday the 15th of May. When the whole of the evidence on both sides was gone through, the Judge Advocate read a paper, which stated the purpose for which the court-martial was called, the circumstance which caused it, names of the members, and the charges which they had to try. The first charge was, That Capt Molloy, of his majesty's ship *Cæsar*, did not, on the 29th of May 1794, cross the enemy's line, in obedience to the signal of the admiral; the second, That on the 1st of June he had not used his utmost endeavours to close with and defeat the enemy.

The court having heard the evidence on the part of the prosecution, and that on behalf of Capt. Molloy, and having duly weighed and considered the same, were of opinion—"That the said charges have been made good against the said Captain Anthony James Pye Molloy. But having found that, on the said 29th of May and 1st of June, as well as on many former occasions, Capt. Molloy's courage had always been unimpeachable--the court were of opinion, that Capt. Molloy, then commanding the *Cæsar*, should be dismissed from his majesty's said ship the *Cæsar*; and ordered that he be accordingly forthwith dismissed."

APRIL 29. About eleven o'clock this morning, the Reverend Mr. Jackson was brought up to the Court of King's Bench, Dublin, where an arrest of judgment was to have been argued by his counsel. A few minutes after Mr. Ponsonby had commenced a most ingenious and able plea, the prisoner, who was standing in the dock, was seized with violent emotions—such as the drawing up of his shoulders, frothing at the mouth, &c. and shortly afterwards fell down and expired on the spot. It is more than probable that he took poison in the morning; at least the circumstances attending his death bear strong symptoms of such a desperate expedient having been had recourse to by him. When he came into court he was uncommonly pale, and in a state of perspiration. The body was ordered to remain in court until the coroner's inquest was held.

At nine o'clock on Friday morning, a coroner's inquest was held on the body, which, after a short deliberation, returned the following verdict: "We find that the Rev. Mr. Jackson died on the 29th of April, of some acrid and mortal substance taken into his stomach, but how or by whom administered is to us unknown."

By the death of Mr. Jackson before sentence was pronounced, his property, which it was said amounted to about 200*l.* a-year, will be preserved to his family, and not escheat to the crown, as it would otherwise have done.

MAY 2. A fire broke out last night on-board his majesty's ship the *Boyne*, at Portsmouth. There was a fresh breeze at south-west, and, it being tide of ebb, the ships were riding with their sterns to the wind. The fire began in the after-part of the ship, which was consequently almost immediately in flames. Within half an hour after the commencement of the fire, the tops and all the rigging were in a blaze.—The remnant of the unfortunate *Boyne*, as the tide flowed, drifted on the Spit till she came to South-Sea Castle.—Precisely at five a very considerable shock was felt over the town of Portsmouth; at that moment the after-magazine blew up with a very great explosion; the effect was tremendous and grand! shot and pieces of timber were thrown to a very considerable distance all around her, and a column of smoke rose in the air that formed itself into the most sublime and picturesque appearance.—We are sorry to add, that at the time she blew up many boats received the shock of the explosion: several of them were blown to pieces, and it is thought not less than twenty of their people perished, notwithstanding the ready assistance of such of the boats as were more fortunate.







*Orme, junr. sculp. 1794.*  
*The Turkish Ambassador.*

*Published as the Act directs, July 1. 1795.*



OF THE COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL INTERCOURSE  
BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND TURKEY.

FROM a series of calculations made upon the result of our commercial transactions with Turkey, for several years successively, it appears that the average balance of their trade, in favour of England, amounted to upwards of six hundred thousand pounds per annum. It was alledged, many years ago, by Dr. Busching, that the balance of this trade, in his time, was upwards of five hundred thousand pounds per annum in favour of this country, as may be seen in the Appendix to Anderson's Commerce, vol. iii. p. 446; and this fact undoubtedly furnishes a strong argument for the encouragement and extension of that branch of our commerce, which still lies open to very great improvements. The articles we principally import from Turkey, are silks, raw and wrought; carpets, goat's-hair, and wool; blue, red, and yellow, Morocco leather; camel's-hair, cotton-yarn, dimity, burdets, waxed linen, shagreen skins; gums, opium, galls, and other drugs for dyeing, painting, and physic; mastic, emery, Lemnian bole, pomegranate-shells, sponges; dates, almonds, coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, storax, wine, oil, figs, raisins, mother-of-pearl, box-wood, saffron, wax, &c. And the articles we export in exchange consist of a vast number of our home manufactures, cloths, stuffs, tin, lead, hardware, sugar, and our own merchandize from both the East and West Indies, by which the course of exchange terminates so much in favour of Great Britain.

In a political view the necessity is well known of keeping up the balance of power between contending empires; and therefore, the wisdom of this country was advantageously displayed, when its interference prevented the Czarina from annihilating the Ottoman power, and from adding its extensive dominions to those of Russia. A retrospect of those transactions will neither prove unentertaining, nor foreign to our purpose.

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The Czarina, who almost from the commencement of her reign had laboured to establish a naval force, which, under the skilful superintendency of Sir Charles Knowles, her English admiral, had been successfully effected, ordered a large fleet of Russian men of war, commanded by Count Orlov, to proceed, in 1769, from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, for the purpose of annoying the Turks on their extensive coasts in the Levant. The unskilfulness of the Russians in maritime affairs greatly retarded the progress of their fleet; and it was not until the spring of 1770 that it arrived at the scene of action, although many experienced British officers were volunteers in the expedition. The Turks, to whom the sea has ever proved a fatal element, for some time had no force capable of opposing the enemy, so that the Morea was exposed to their ravages, and several places of strength were taken; the Greek inhabitants every where joyfully received the invaders; but at length an army of Albanians being collected, drove the Russians to their ships, and, having recovered the whole country, chastised the revolt of its inhabitants by the lawless vengeance of a licentious soldiery. The Russians, now driven from the Morea, had advanced in full force into the Egean sea, and, passing the straits which divide the island of Scio from the coast of Natolia, were met by a Turkish fleet of superior force. A furious engagement ensued on the 5th of July, in which the Russian admiral Spirito encountered the Captain Pacha, in the Sultana of 90 guns, yard-arm and yard-arm. The two ships, running close together, grappled each other. The Russians by throwing hand grenades, set the enemy's ship on fire, which rapidly spread, and soon reached the Russian ship. This dreadful spectacle suspended the action between the two fleets, until both ships blew up. Only twenty-four Russians were saved, among

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among whom were the admiral, his son, and Count Theodore Orlov; the ship carried ninety brass guns, and had on-board a chest containing 500,000 rubles, (112,500*l.* sterling.) Although each fleet was equally affected by this event, yet it infused a panic among the Turks, which the Russians did not partake of. During the remainder of the day, the Turks maintained the action; but, on the approach of night, the Captain Pacha, who had escaped from the Sultana, contrary to the advice of his officers, gave orders for each ship to cut its cables, and run into a bay on the coast of Natolia, near a small town anciently called Cyssus, but now known by the name of Chisme. Houssein Bey, who had raised himself by his talents for war to be second in command, saved his ship by bravely forcing his way through the enemy's ships. Here the Russian fleet soon after blocked them up, and began a furious cannonade; which being found ineffectual, a fire-ship was sent in at midnight, on the 7th of July, which, by the intrepid behaviour of Lieutenant Dougdale, grappled a Turkish man of war, and, the wind at that moment being very high, the whole Ottoman fleet was consumed except one man of war and a few galleys that were towed off by the conquerors. The Russians the next morning entered the harbour; bombarded the town and a castle that protected it; when, a shot happening to blow up the powder-magazine, both the town and castle were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus, through the fatal misconduct of a commander, there was scarcely a vestige left, in a few hours, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had all been in existence the day before. It is somewhat remarkable, that this place was rendered famous by a great victory which the Romans gained there over the fleet of Antiochus, in the year before Christ 191. The Turkish fleet consisted of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, beside a number of zebecs and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail. The Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. The

Turkish fleet being thus annihilated, it might have been expected that the Russian admiral would have shaken the Ottoman empire to its very foundations; that he would have put it to the proof how far the Dardanelles were effectual for the defence of the Hellespont. Had he proved successful against those celebrated barriers, Constantinople itself, the seat of empire, must have fallen into his hands.

In the mean time, the great Russian army, having passed the Danube, found its progress in Bulgaria stopped by the range of mountains which intersect that country, whilst it was continually harassed by detachments from the Turkish camp. The expences of the war were severely felt by each empire, and, although that of Russia had gained the ascendancy, no beneficial consequences had been realized. In this state of affairs, the Grand Signior Mustapha III. emperor of the Turks, died, January 21st, 1774, in the 58th year of his age, and 17th of his reign; he appointed his brother Abdulhamet to succeed him in the throne. The war was continued with spirit; but a large Turkish army, commanded by the Reis Effendi, being most disgracefully defeated by General Kamenski, the Porte, no longer able to maintain the war, was compelled to receive terms from the conqueror. A peace was signed on the 21st of July, 1774, at Kainardgiac, to ratify which the mufti issued his fetfa, or ordinance, in which, to the great degradation of Ottoman pride, it is said, that, "seeing our troops will no longer fight the Russians, it is necessary to conclude a peace."

The treaty of peace consisted of twenty-eight articles, by which, among other advantages, the Russians obtained a free navigation in all the Turkish seas, together with the passage through the Dardanelles: Russian consuls were likewise to reside in the Turkish sea-ports.

Although peace was in this manner suddenly restored, yet it proved of an equally short duration; and it soon became apparent that the latent ambition of Catharine caused her to meditate



meditate the utter subversion of the Turkish empire, and indulged the hope that she herself should effect it. To bring forward this grand design, she made a progress from Moscow to the Crimea, with all the pageantry of imperial state. Whilst on this journey she received a visit from the late Emperor of Germany, Joseph II. and, as the visits of potentates are generally fatal to the peace of the world, there was good ground to suppose that this was portentous to the Ottoman empire, and had for its chief objects to settle the mode of attacking it, and how it should be divided when conquered. The Porte took the alarm, and, determining not to await the maturation of its enemy's councils and force, published a manifesto, which is dated the 7th of August, 1787, and began hostilities against the Empress of Russia. The emperor, soon after, led a very formidable army against the Turkish fastnesses on the frontiers of Hungary, not doubting but that every thing would fall before him with the rapidity which Cæsar exulted in; but his progress was opposed, and his measures frustrated, by the surprising valour and conduct of the Turks.

The war with Russia was chiefly maritime, and the seat of it the Black Sea; but here neither success nor glory accrued to the Turkish arms. The Russians became masters of Oczakow, and in every conflict at sea were decisively superior.

This unequal war was not looked upon with indifference by the powers of Europe. The subjugation of the Turkish empire, and the vast increase of power which Russia would acquire, by possessing the most valuable because the most commercial parts of it, were considered as a revolution in which the other states of Europe were deeply interested. In consequence of which an alliance was formed between Great Britain and Prussia, having for its chief object the rescuing the Turks from the destruction which hung over them, by restoring peace to that part of Europe. The losses and disgraces which the emperor sustained, and the death of General Laudohn, who alone had

effected any thing of consequence, rendered that prince anxious to terminate the war; and the Empress of Russia, through the remonstrances of the British court, at length acceded to terms of peace, by the conditions of which very important towns and districts are added to her dominions, which, however, her arms had previously obtained; but she seems now to have transferred the completion of her grand plan to her successor, should he possess those distinguishing talents which have advanced the empire to its present grandeur since the time of the second Peter, and which have appeared under the government of women in a remarkable succession.

It seems principally with a view to counteract these ambitious designs on the Ottoman empire, as well as for the protection and encouragement of our trade to the Levant, that the outline of a commercial treaty between Great Britain and Turkey has been lately sent under an embassy to Constantinople; and that the Turkish ambassador, has been received in London, and honoured with the ceremony of *une grande entrée*. And, if we may judge of the sincerity and good faith of the Emperor of the Sublime Porte by the honest integrity and simplicity of manners of his ambassador in London, we have little doubt but the alliance may prove equally advantageous and honourable to both parties. And as, in consequence of this treaty, some information relative to the customs and government of the Turks may prove acceptable to the reader, I shall conclude with a few particulars concerning them.

The titles of the emperor, according to the custom of the East, are very prolix and magnificent, as will appear from the following specimen. "We, the servant and lord of the most honoured and blessed cities, the venerable houses, and sacred places, before which all nations bow; of Mecca, which God delights to honour; of the splendid Medina, and the holy city of Jerusalem; of the imperial and desirable cities of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Bursa, emperor; also of Babylon, Damascus,

of the fragrant Paradise, and the incomparable Egypt; of all Arabia, Aleppo, Antioch, and many other highly celebrated and memorable places, cities, and faithful vassals, emperor; emperor of emperors, the most gracious and all-powerful sultan," &c.

In the succession to the empire no regard is paid to age or birth-right, the Turks esteeming it sufficient, if in their elections they keep to the Othman family: but women are excluded from the throne. Though the government is purely monarchical and despotic, yet if the emperor is inattentive to gratify the humours of the people, and especially of the mutinous janizaries, he is not only in danger of being deposed, but also of being murdered.

The emperor's divan, or council of state, meets twice a week in the emperor's palace, that is on Sundays and Thursdays. The grand vizier, who sits as president, has on his right hand the Cadinlaskier of Romelia, and on his left that of Natolia. The musti also assists when expressly summoned. All the other viziers have likewise a seat here, and next to them stand on one side the tesserdar, or high treasurer, the reis-effendi, or secretary of state, and other commissioners of the exchequer; but the military officers, as the aga of the janizaries, the aga of the spahis, the aga of the siluds, &c. sit within the divan. These several members wear a particular habit. The sultan does not enter the room; but hears what passes from an adjoining chamber, which looks into the divan.—When he convenes a general council, to which all the great persons of the empire are summoned, as the clergy, the military and other officers, and even the old and most experienced soldiers, such a divan is called *ajak divani*, the whole assembly standing.

The highest office, next to the sultan, is the vizier *azem*, or grand vizier, who has the care of the whole empire, and is not only intrusted with the management of the revenue, with foreign affairs, and the administration of justice in civil and criminal concerns, but also with the conduct of

wars, and the command of armies. When the sultan nominates this great officer, he puts into his hand the seal of the empire, upon which is engraven his name. This is the badge of his office, and he always carries it in his bosom. With this seal he dispatches all his orders, without consulting any one. His power is unlimited, except with respect to the troops, which he cannot punish without the consent of the commanders. All affairs are decided by his judgment; and he disposes of all the posts in the empire, except those of judicature.

The grand vizier lives in the utmost splendour; he has above two thousand officers and domestics in his palace, and when he appears in public his turban adorned with two plumes of feathers, enriched with diamonds and precious stones; the harness of his horse is usually set with rubies and turquoises, and his housings richly embroidered with gold and pearls. His guard is composed of about four hundred Bosnians, or Albanians, some of whom attend him on foot when he goes to the divan; but, when he marches into the field, they are all well-mounted, and carry a lance, a sword, a hatchet, and a brace of pistols. He is preceded by three horse-tails, on the top of which is a gold ball. This is the military ensign of the Ottomans; for one of their generals being at a loss how to rally his troops, who had lost all their standards, cut off a horse's tail, and erecting it on the point of a lance, the soldiers flocked to this new ensign, renewed their attack, and became victorious.

When the sultan honours the grand vizier with the command of an army, he takes out one of the plumes of his own turban, and delivers it to him to place in his own. Upon his receiving this mark of distinction, the soldiers acknowledge him for their general. The grand vizier's income, without being guilty of any injustice, amounts to about six hundred thousand dollars a year, (135,000*l.* sterling,) exclusive of presents and other perquisites. But notwithstanding the greatness of his revenue, and the splendour



splendour in which he lives, he is exposed to continual danger, it being the usual policy of the emperors to screen themselves from the clamours of people, by throwing the whole blame of any instance of mal-administration on this officer, and giving him up to the public resentment.

Next to the grand vizier are six others, styled "viziers of the bench or council," and "bashas of three horse-tails;" because, when they march, three horse-tails are carried before them, while only one is carried before the ordinary bashas. These viziers ought to be men distinguished by their wisdom, and their knowledge of the laws. They assist at the divan, but never deliver their opinion upon the affairs which are discussed there, unless required by the grand vizier. These have each two thousand crowns a year, and the grand vizier often refers matters of small consequence to them, as well as to the ordinary judges. *Cady* is a word used for all judges of a province or particular place.

A *beglerbeg* is a viceroy, with several provinces under his command, the name itself signifying a prince of princes. The three principal are the *Beglerbeg* of *Rumili*, who resides at *Sophia*; the *Beglerbeg* of *Natolia*, the seat of whose government is at *Cutabia*; and the *Beglerbeg* of *Damascus*, who keeps his court in that city. Under these are the *bashas* or governors, whose posts are very considerable, but precarious: and subordinate to these are the *fangiacs*, who may be termed deputy-governors. These are all military officers.

The *reis-effendi*, also called the *reis-kital*, is lord chancellor and secretary of state. His name signifies chief of the writers. He attends on the vizier to pass orders, decrees, patents, and commissions, into all parts of the empire, which are daily dispatched in incredible numbers, and therefore he employs a multitude of clerks in his office.

The public treasury is under the management of the *testerdar*, or high treasurer. The money of this treasury, called the public money of the *mussulmans*, is not to be touched even by the

emperor but in the greatest exigency, much less for private occasions. The sultan's private treasury, which he disposes of according to his own pleasure, is under the care of the *hasnadar bafehi*, who is the next person in rank to the *kissar* in the *seraglio*. Prince *Cantemir* says, that, in his time, twenty-seven thousand purses, amounting to thirteen millions and a half of *rix-dollars*, were annually returned to both treasuries. The confiscations of the estates and effects of the bashas, and other officers, together with the money arising from the *escheats* of Turks dying without male issue, make also a very considerable article.

The janizaries are the flower of the Turkish forces; they are all infantry, and were first formed of captive Christians, by the Emperor *Amurath I.* about the year 1360. Their number generally amounts to forty thousand, divided into a hundred and sixty-two companies, or chambers, called *odas*, in which they live together at *Constantinople* as in a convent. The janizaries are of a superior rank to all other soldiers; and are also more arrogant and factious, whence it is that by them the public tranquillity is chiefly disturbed. The government is entirely in the hands of the army. The grand signior, with all his absolute power, is as much a slave as any of his subjects, and trembles at a janizary's frown. Here is, indeed, a much greater appearance of subjection than amongst us: a minister of state is not spoken to but upon the knee; should a reflection on his conduct be dropped in a coffee-house (for they have their spies every where), the house would be rased to the ground, and perhaps the whole company put to the torture. Yet, when a minister here displeases the people, in three hours time he is dragged even from his master's arms. They cut off his hands, head, and feet, and throw them before the palace gate, with all the respect in the world; while the sultan, to whom they all profess an unlimited adoration, sits trembling in his apartment, and dares neither defend nor revenge his favourite.

HISTORY

HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 45.

**A**T the time America was discovered, it was found inhabited by a race of men no less different from those in the other parts of the world than the climate and natural productions of this continent are different from those of Europe, Asia, or Africa. One great peculiarity in the native Americans is their colour, and the identity of it throughout the whole extent of the continent. In Europe and Asia, the people who inhabit the northern countries are of a fairer complexion than those who dwell more to the southward. In the torrid zone, both in Africa and Asia, the natives are entirely black, or the next thing to it. This, however, must be understood with some limitation. The people of Lapland, who inhabit the most northerly part of Europe, are by no means so fair as the inhabitants of Britain; nor are the Tartars so fair as the inhabitants of Europe who lie under the same parallels of latitude. Nevertheless a Laplander is fair when compared with an Abyssinian, and a Tartar if compared with a native of the Molucca islands.—In America, this distinction of colour was not to be found. In the torrid zone there were no negroes, and in the temperate and frigid zones there were no white people. All of them were of a kind of red copper-colour, which Mr. Forster observed, in the Pessierays of Terra del Fuego, to have something of a gloss resembling that metal. It doth not appear, however, that this matter hath ever been inquired into with sufficient accuracy. The inhabitants of the inland parts of South America, where the continent is widest, and consequently the influence of the sun the most powerful, have never been compared with those of Canada, or more northerly parts, at least by any person of credit. Yet this ought to have been done, and that in many instances too, before it could be asserted so positively as most authors do, that there is not the least difference of

complexion among the natives of America. Indeed, so many systems have been formed concerning them, that it is very difficult to obtain a true knowledge of the most simple facts.—If we may believe the Abbé Raynal, the Californians are swarthier than the Mexicans; and so positive is he in his opinion, that he gives a reason for it: "This difference of colour," says he, "proves, that the civilized life of society subverts, or totally changes, the order and laws of nature, since we find, under the temperate zone, a savage people that are blacker than the civilized nations of the torrid zone."—On the other hand, Dr. Robertson classes all the inhabitants of Spanish America together with regard to colour, whether they are civilized or uncivilized; and, when he speaks of California, takes no notice of any peculiarity in their colour more than others.—The general appearance of the indigenous Americans in various districts is thus described by the Chevalier Pinto: "They are all of a copper-colour, with some diversity of shade, not in proportion to their distance from the equator, but according to their degree of elevation of the territory in which they reside. Those who live in a high country are fairer than those in the marshy low lands on the coast. Their face is round; farther removed, perhaps, than that of any people from an oval shape. Their forehead is small; the extremity of their ears far from the face; their lips thick; their nose flat; their eyes black, or of a chestnut colour, small, but capable of discerning objects at a great distance. Their hair is always thick and sleek, and without any tendency to curl. At the first aspect, a South American appears to be mild and innocent; but, on a more attentive view, one discovers in his countenance something wild, distrustful, and sullen."

The following account of the native Americans is given by Don Antonio Ulloa, in a work intitled *Mémoires*



*moires philosophiques, historiques, et physiques, concernant la decouverte de l'Amerique, lately published.*

The American Indians are naturally of a colour bordering upon red. Their frequent exposure to the sun and wind changes it to their ordinary dusky hue. The temperature of the air appears to have little or no influence in this respect. There is no perceptible difference in complexion between the inhabitants of the high and those of the low parts of Peru; yet the climates are of an extreme difference. Nay, the Indians who live as far as forty degrees and upwards south or north of the equator, are not to be distinguished, in point of colour, from those immediately under it.

There is also a general conformation of features and person, which, more or less, characteriseth them all. Their chief distinctions in these respects are a small forehead, partly covered with hair to the eye-brows, little eyes, the nose thin, pointed, and bent towards the upper lip; a broad face, large ears, black, thick, and lank, hair; the legs well formed, the feet small, the body thick and muscular; little or no beard on the face, and that little never extending beyond a small part of the chin and upper lip. It may easily be supposed that this general description cannot apply, in all its parts, to every individual; but all of them partake so much of it, that they may easily be distinguished even from the mulattoes, who come nearest to them in point of colour.

The resemblance among all the American tribes is not less remarkable in respect to their genius, character, manners, and particular customs. The most distant tribes are, in these respects, as similar as though they formed but one nation.

All the Indian nations have a peculiar pleasure in painting their bodies of a red colour, with a certain species of earth. The mine of Guancavelica was formerly of no other use than to supply them with this material for dyeing their bodies; and the cinnabar extracted from it was applied entirely to this purpose. The

tribes in Louisiana and Canada have the same passion; hence minium is the commodity most in demand there.

It may seem singular that these nations, whose natural colour is red, should affect the same colour as an artificial ornament. But it may be observed, that they do nothing in this respect but what corresponds to the practice of Europeans, who also study to heighten and display to advantage the natural red and white of their complexions. The Indians of Peru have now indeed abandoned the custom of painting their bodies: but it was common among them before they were conquered by the Spaniards; and it still remains the custom of all those tribes who have preserved their liberty. The northern nations of America, besides the red colour which is predominant, employ also black, white, blue, and green, in painting their bodies.

The adjustment of these colours is a matter of as great consideration, with the Indians of Louisiana and the vast regions extending to the north, as the ornaments of dress among the most polished nations. The business itself they call *Maclacker*, and they do not fail to apply all their talents and assiduity to accomplish it in the most finished manner. No lady of the greatest fashion ever consulted her mirror with more anxiety than the Indians do while painting their bodies. The colours are applied with the utmost accuracy and address. Upon the eye-lids, precisely at the root of the eye-lashes, they carefully draw two lines as fine as the smallest thread; the same upon the lips, the openings of the nostrils, the eye-brows, and the ears; of which last they even follow all the inflexions and insinuosities. As to the rest of the face, they distribute various figures, in all which the red predominates, and the other colours are assorted so as to throw it out to the best advantage. The neck also receives its proper ornaments: a thick coat of vermillion commonly distinguishes the cheeks. Five or six hours are requisite for accomplishing all this with the nicety which they affect. As their first attempts do not always succeed

ceed to their wish, they efface them, and begin a-new upon a better plan. No coquette is more fastidious in her choice of ornament, none more vain when the important adjustment is finished. Their delight and self-satisfaction are then so great, that the mirror is hardly ever laid down. An Indian matched to his mind is the vainest of all the human species. The other parts of the body are left in their natural state, and, excepting what is called a *cachecul*, they go entirely naked.

Such of them as have made themselves eminent for bravery, or other qualifications, are distinguished by figures painted on their bodies. They introduce the colours by making punctures on their skins, and the extent of surface which this ornament covers is proportioned to the exploits they have performed. Some paint only their arms, others both their arms and legs; others again their thighs; while those who have attained the summit of warlike renown have their bodies painted from their waist upwards. This is the heraldry of the Indians; the devices of which are probably more exactly adjusted to the merits of the persons who bear them than those of more civilized countries.

Besides these ornaments, the warriors also carry plumes of feathers on their heads, their arms, and ancles. These likewise are tokens of valour, and none but such as have been thus distinguished may wear them.

The propensity to indolence is equal among all the tribes of Indians, civilized or savage. The only employment of those who have preserved their independence is hunting and fishing. In some districts the women exercise a little agriculture in raising Indian corn and pumpkins, of which they form a species of aliment, by bruising them together: they also prepare the ordinary beverage in use among them, taking care, at the same time, of the children, of whom the fathers take no charge.

The female Indians of all the conquered regions of South America practise what is called the *urcu* (a word which among them signifies ele-

vation). It consists in throwing forward the hair from the crown of the head upon the brow, and cutting it round from the ears to above the eye; so that the forehead and eyebrows are entirely covered. The same custom takes place in the northern countries. The female inhabitants of both regions tie the rest of their hair behind so exactly on the same fashion, that it might be supposed the effect of mutual imitation. This however being impossible, from the vast distance that separates them, is thought to countenance the supposition of the whole of America being originally planted with one race of people.

This custom does not take place among the males. Those of the higher parts of Peru wear long and flowing hair, which they reckon a great ornament. In the lower parts of the same country they cut it short, on account of the heat of the climate; a circumstance in which they imitate the Spaniards. The inhabitants of Louisiana pluck out their hair by the root, from the crown of the head forwards, in order to obtain a large forehead, otherwise denied them by nature. The rest of their hair they cut as short as possible, to prevent their enemies from seizing them by it in battle, and also to prevent them from easily getting their scalp, should they fall into their hands as prisoners.

The whole race of American Indians is distinguished by thickness of skin and hardness of fibres; circumstances which probably contribute to that insensibility to bodily pain for which they are remarkable. An instance of this insensibility occurred in an Indian who was under the necessity of submitting to be cut for the stone. This operation, in ordinary cases, seldom lasts above four or five minutes. Unfavourable circumstances in his case prolonged it to the uncommon period of twenty-seven minutes. Yet all this time the patient gave no tokens of the extreme pain commonly attending this operation: he complained only as a person does who feels some slight uneasiness. At last the stone was extracted. Two days after, he expressed a desire for food,



food, and on the eighth day from the operation he quitted his bed, free from pain, although the wound was not yet thoroughly closed. The same want of sensibility is observed in cases of fractures, wounds, and other accidents of a similar nature. In all these cases their cure is easily effected, and they seem to suffer less present pain than any other race of men. The skulls that have been taken up in their ancient burying-grounds are of a greater thickness than that bone is commonly found, being from six to seven lines from the outer to the inner superficies. The same is remarked as to the thickness of their skins.

It is natural to infer from hence, that their comparative insensibility to pain is owing to a coarser and stronger organization than that of other nations. The ease with which they endure the severities of climate is another proof of this. The inhabitants of the higher parts of Peru live amidst perpetual frost and snow. Although their clothing is very slight, they support this inclement temperature without the least inconvenience. Habit, it is to be confessed, may contribute a good deal to this, but much also is to be ascribed to the compact texture of their skins, which defends them from the impression of cold through their pores.

The northern Indians resemble them in this respect. The utmost rigours of the winter season do not prevent them from following the chase almost naked. It is true, they wear a kind of woollen-cloak, or sometimes the skin of a wild-beast, upon their shoulders; but besides that it covers only a small part of their body, it would appear that they use it rather for ornament than warmth. In fact, they wear it indiscriminately, in the severities of winter and in the sultriest heats of summer, when neither Europeans nor negroes can suffer any but the slightest clothing. They even frequently throw aside this cloak when they go a-hunting, that it may not embarrass them in traversing their forests, where they say the thorns and undergrowth would take hold of it; while, on the

contrary, they slide smoothly over the surface of their naked bodies. At all times they go with their heads uncovered, without suffering the least inconvenience, either from the cold, or from those *coups de soleil*, which in Louisiana are so often fatal to the inhabitants of other climates.

The Indians of South America distinguish themselves by modern dresses, in which they affect various tastes. Those of the high country, and of the valleys in Peru, dress partly in the Spanish fashion. Instead of hats they wear bonnets of coarse double cloth, the weight of which neither seems to incommode them when they go to warmer climates, nor does the accidental want of them seem to be felt in situations where the most piercing cold reigns. Their legs and feet are always bare, if we except a sort of sandals made of the skins of oxen. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are described as generally more feeble in their frame; less vigorous in the efforts of their mind; of gentler dispositions, more addicted to pleasure, and sunk in indolence.—This, however, is not universally the case. Many of their nations are as intrepid and enterprising as any others on the whole continent. Among the tribes on the banks of the Oroonoko, if a warrior aspires to the post of captain, his probation begins with a long fast, more rigid than any ever observed by the most abstemious hermit. At the close of this the chiefs assemble; and each gives him three lashes with a large whip, applied so vigorously, that his body is almost flayed. If he betrays the least symptom of impatience, or even of sensibility, he is disgraced for ever, and rejected as unworthy of the honour. After some interval, his constancy is proved by a more excruciating trial. He is laid in his hammock with his hands bound fast; and an innumerable multitude of venomous ants, whose bite occasions a violent pain and inflammation, are thrown upon him. The judges of his merit stand around the hammock; and, whilst these cruel insects fasten upon the most sensible parts of his body,

body, a sigh, a groan, or an involuntary motion expressive of what he suffers, would exclude him from the dignity of which he is ambitious. Even after this evidence, his fortitude is not deemed to be sufficiently ascertained, till he has stood another test more severe, if possible, than the former. He is again suspended in his hammock, and covered with the leaves of the palmetto. A fire of stinking herbs is kindled underneath, so as he may feel its heat, and be involved in smoke. Though scorched and almost suffocated, he must continue to endure this with the same patient insensibility. Many perish in this essay of their firmness and courage; but such as go through it with applause, receive the ensigns of their new dignity with much solemnity, and are ever after regarded as leaders of approved resolution, whose behaviour, in the most trying situations, will do honour to their country. In North America, the previous trial of a warrior is neither so formal nor so severe: though, even there, before a youth is permitted to bear arms, his patience and fortitude are proved by blows, by fire, and by insults more intolerable to a haughty spirit than either.

Of the manners and customs of the North Americans more particularly, the following is the most consistent account that can be collected from the best informed and most impartial writers.

When the Europeans first arrived in America, they found the Indians quite naked, except those parts which even the most uncultivated people usually conceal. Since that time, however, they generally use a coarse blanket, which they buy of the neighbouring planters.

Their huts or cabins are made of stakes of wood driven into the ground, and covered with branches of trees or reeds. They lie on the floor either on mats or the skins of wild beasts. Their dishes are of timber; but their spoons are made of the skulls of wild oxen, and their knives of flint. A kettle and a large plate constitute almost the whole utensils of the family. Their diet consists chiefly in what

they procure by hunting; and sagamite, or pottage, is likewise one of their most common kinds of food. The most honourable furniture amongst them is the scalps of their enemies; with those they ornament their huts, which are esteemed in proportion to the number of this sort of spoils.

The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations of Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the same reason extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are



are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as Nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are pretty much equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans; and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they insist under the banners of the chief in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and, according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant; because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state, requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristo-

cracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence, being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and which may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed; and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened, nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany every feast.

To assist their memory, they have belts of small shells, or beads, of different colours, each representing a particular object, which is marked by their colour and arrangement. At the conclusion of every subject on which they discourse, when they treat with a foreign state, they deliver one of those belts; for, if this ceremony should be omitted, all that they have said passes for nothing. Those belts are carefully deposited in each town,

as the public records of the nation; and to them they occasionally have recourse, when any public contest happens with a neighbouring tribe. Of late, as the materials of which those belts are made have become scarce, they often give some skin in place of the wampum (the name of the beads), and receive in return presents of a more valuable kind from our commissioners; for they never consider a treaty as of any weight, unless every article in it be ratified by such a gratification.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner; but, if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends are deemed enemies, and they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who are disposed to go out to battle (for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination,) give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him; for every thing among those people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams; which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could

desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelaine, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old:

A generous friendship no cold medium  
knows;

But with one love, with one resentment,  
glows.

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And indeed no people carry their friendship or their resentment so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances: that principle in human nature which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined to enable them to entertain just sentiments of humanity, or universal benevolence. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage to an incredible degree towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars, seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having



Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, and the day appointed for their setting out on the expedition being arrived, they take leave of their friends, and exchange their clothes, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship; after which they proceed from the town, their wives and female relations walking before, and attending them to some distance. The warriors march all dressed in their finest apparel and most showy ornaments, without any order. The chief walks slowly before them, singing the war-song, while the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver them all their finery, and, putting on their worst clothes, proceed on their expedition.

Every nation has its peculiar ensign or standard, which is generally some beast, bird, or fish. Those among the Five Nations are the bear, otter, wolf, tortoise, and eagle; and by these names the tribes are usually distinguished. They have the figures of those animals pricked and painted on several parts of their bodies; and, when they march through the woods, they commonly, at every encampment, cut the representation of their ensign on trees, especially after a successful campaign: marking at the

same time the number of scalps or prisoners they have taken. Their military dress is extremely singular. They cut off or pull out all their hair, except a spot about the breadth of two English crown-pieces, near the top of their heads, and entirely destroy their eye-brows. The lock left upon their heads is divided into several parcels, each of which is stiffened and adorned with wampum, beads, and feathers of various kinds, the whole being twisted into a form much resembling the modern pom-poon. Their heads are painted red down to the eye-brows, and sprinkled over with white down. The gristles of their ears are split almost quite round, and distended with wires or splinters so as to meet and tie together on the nape of the neck. These are also hung with ornaments, and generally bear the representation of some bird or beast. Their noses are likewise bored and hung with trinkets of beads, and their faces painted with various colours so as to make an awful appearance. Their breasts are adorned with a gorget or medal, of brass, copper, or some other metal; and that dreadful weapon the scalping-knife hangs by a string from their neck.

[To be continued.]

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

EARL OF SOMERSET, AND THE COUNTESS OF ESSEX.

**I**N the reign of James-I. towards the end of the year 1609, Robert Carr, a youth of twenty years of age, and of a good family in Scotland, returned to London from his travels. All his natural accomplishments consisted in a handsome person; all his acquired abilities in an easy air and genteel carriage. He was strongly recommended to his countryman Lord Hay; and that nobleman no sooner cast his eye upon him, than he found him possessed of those talents which would qualify him for making a figure in the English court. Conscious of the king's fondness for youth and beauty, and exterior appearance, he studied how matters might be so

conducted, that this new object should make the deepest impression upon him. Without naming him at court, he allotted him the office of presenting to James his buckler and device at a match of tilting; and hoped he would engage the attention of that monarch. Fortune favoured his designs, by an accident which at first bore a contrary aspect. When Carr was advancing to perform his office, his unruly horse flung him, and broke his leg, in the king's presence. James approached him with looks of pity and compassion. His beauty and tender years excited love and affection; and the prince ordered him to be carried to the palace, and to be

be carefully attended. He himself, after the tilting, paid him a visit; and frequently repeated it during his confinement. The ignorance and simplicity of the boy completed the conquest which his exterior grace and accomplishments had begun. Possessed with a high opinion of his own abilities, he flattered himself that this raw youth, by his precepts and instructions, would soon be equal to his wisest ministers, and be initiated into all the mysteries of government. And, as this kind of creation was more perfectly his own work than any other, he seemed to entertain a more unbounded affection for his minion than what he bore even to his own children. He soon conferred upon him the honour of knighthood, promoted him to the title of Viscount Rochester, invested him with the order of the garter, admitted him into the privy-council, and, though at first he assigned him no particular office, he entrusted him with the supreme direction of all his business and political concerns. In proportion to his rapid advancement in confidence and honour, was wealth bestowed upon the needy favourite; and, while Salisbury and all the ablest ministers could scarcely find money to defray the necessary expences of government, James, with an unsparing hand, loaded with riches this useless and contemptible pageant. The favourite was not however at first so elated with his good fortune, as not to be sensible of his own ignorance and inexperience. He had therefore recourse to the assistance and advice of a friend; and he was more happy in his choice than is usual with persons of his character. In Sir Thomas Overbury he found a judicious and wise counsellor, who endeavoured to season his mind with the principles of prudence and discretion. And so long as he had the modesty to follow the friendly counsels of Overbury, he enjoyed the rare fortune of being beloved by the prince, without incurring the hatred of the people. To complete the happiness of this pampered minion, nothing was wanting but a kind mistress; and, where high fortune concurred with all the

graces of external form, this circumstance could not be difficult to attain. But it was here the favourite met with that rock which ruined all his future prospects, and which plunged him for ever into an abyfs of infamy, guilt, and misery.

No sooner had James ascended the throne of England, than he resolved to compensate the many calamities which the unhappy families of Howard and Devereux had suffered in support of his cause and that of his mother. Having restored young Essex to his rank and blood, and bestowed the title of Suffolk and Northampton on the two brothers of the house of Norfolk, he endeavoured to procure the farther pleasure of uniting their families by the marriage of the Earl of Essex with Lady Frances Howard, daughter to the Earl of Suffolk. She was only in her thirteenth and he in his fourteenth year; and it was judged proper, till both should arrive at the age of puberty, that he should go abroad, and spend some time in his travels. After an absence of four years he returned to England, and was charmed with the sight of the lovely bride, who was now in the full bloom of her beauty, and who was universally admired by the whole court. But when he approached, and claimed the privileges of a husband, he met with nothing but coldness and indifference, and a flat refusal of any farther freedom. He had recourse to her parents, who obliged her to accompany him into the country, and to partake of his bed: but nothing could conquer her invincible obstinacy, and she still rose from his side without having tasted the nuptial pleasures. Provoked at this unaccountable behaviour, he at last abandoned the pursuit, and separating himself from her, allowed her to follow her own will and inclination. It was generally thought that a lady of her age and constitution could not discover such an unconquerable aversion to one man, without some secret attachment to another; and it soon appeared that the conjecture of the public was but too well founded. She had listened to the addresses of the favourite, and her tender heart had  
been



been easily captivated by the graceful person and insinuating address of the worthless minion. She flattered herself that, so long as she refused the embraces of Essex, she could not properly be deemed his wife, and that a separation and divorce might still pave the way for a new marriage with her beloved Rochester. Their passion was so violent, and their opportunities of meeting so frequent, that they had already indulged themselves in all the gratifications of love: yet they still bewailed their unhappy fate, while their union was not perfect and legitimate; and the lover as well as the mistress was impatient till their mutual ardor should have the sanction of marriage.

An affair of so great consequence could not be accomplished without consulting Overbury, to whom Rochester was wont to communicate all his secrets. That faithful counsellor was alarmed at the proposal; and he employed every argument to divert his friend from so foolish an attempt. He represented the great difficulty of obtaining a divorce between her and her husband; and the extreme danger, as well as infamy, of taking into his bed an abandoned woman, who, being married to a nobleman of the first rank, had not scrupled to prostitute her character, and lavish her favours on the object of a capricious and momentary passion; and in the warmth of his friendship he went so far, as to threaten Rochester that he would break off all further correspondence with him, if he could so far forget his honour and his interest as to prosecute the intended marriage. Rochester had the weakness to report this conversation to his mistress, the Countess of Essex; and when, in the fury of her rage and resentment, she swore vengeance against Overbury, he had also the baseness to engage in her vindictive schemes, and to doom to destruction his faithful friend, for the greatest instance which he could receive of his sincere and cordial friendship.

Some contrivance was necessary for the execution of their cruel purpose. Rochester applied to the king, and, after complaining that his own in-

dulgence to Overbury had inspired him with a degree of arrogance which was altogether intolerable, he obtained a commission for his embassy to Russia; which he represented as a retreat for his friend both advantageous and honourable. When consulted by Overbury, he earnestly advised him not to accept this offer, and undertook the task of appeasing his majesty, should he seem to be offended at the refusal. To the king again he exaggerated the insolence of Overbury's conduct, and procured a warrant for sending him to the tower, which James intended as a gentle punishment for his disobedience. The lieutenant of the tower was a creature of Rochester's, and had lately been entrusted with the office for this very purpose: he subjected Overbury to such a rigorous confinement, that the unhappy prisoner was debarred from the sight even of his nearest relations; and no intercourse of any kind was permitted him, during the space of six months that he had lived in prison.

This impediment being removed, the lovers resolved to pursue their purpose; and the king himself forgetting the dignity of his character, and his obligations to the family of Essex, warmly seconded the project of obtaining a divorce between the countess and her husband. This indeed was the more easy, as Essex was willing to embrace any decent opportunity of separating himself from a profligate woman, by whom he was hated, and whose love, had she thought proper to have offered it, he would now have rejected with contempt and disdain. The sentence of divorce, upon the most ridiculous pretence, was awarded between the Earl of Essex and his countess; and, to complete the farce, the king, unwilling that the lady should lose any rank by her new marriage, conferred on his minion the title of Earl of Somerset. The Countess of Somerset, having thus accomplished her wishes, might have enjoyed as much happiness as it was possible for a woman of her abandoned character to enjoy, had she not been prompted by her revenge to imbrue her hands in the blood

blood of an innocent man, and by that means involved herself in utter ruin and destruction.

Though she had already deprived Overbury of his liberty, she could not be content till she had made him feel the severer effects of her resentment; and she engaged her husband as well as her uncle, the Earl of Northampton, in the atrocious design of taking him off by poison. Fruitless attempts were repeated by weak poisons; but at last they gave him one so strong and violent, that the symptoms were evident to every one who approached him. He was buried in the tower with the greatest dispatch and secrecy, under pretence that he died of such a loathsome disease as rendered his corpse unfit to be seen.

Conscious of the murder of his friend, Somerset enjoyed little satisfaction in the pleasures of love, or the utmost kindness and indulgence of the king. The graces of his youth gradually decayed, the gaiety of his manners insensibly vanished, and his politeness and affability were changed into fullness and silence; and the king, who had been captivated by these superficial accomplishments, began to withdraw his affections from a man who no longer contributed to his amusement.

To complete his disgrace, an apothecary's servant, who had been employed in preparing the poison, hav-

ing retired to Fushing, began to talk very freely of the whole secret; and the affair at last reached the ears of Trumbal, the king's ambassador in the Low Countries. Trumbal immediately transmitted the intelligence to Sir Ralph Winwood, secretary of state, who imparted the matter to his majesty. The king, surprised and confounded to find such enormous guilt in a man whom he had admitted into the most intimate familiarity, sent for Sir Edward Coke, lord chief justice, and ordered him to examine into the affair with the utmost rigour and impartiality. Coke executed his orders with that industry and severity for which he was so remarkable: the whole labyrinth of guilt was fully unfolded. The accomplices of Overbury's murder suffered the punishment due to their crimes, but the king granted a pardon to the principals, Somerset and his countess: and, to mitigate the severity of their fate, after some years imprisonment, he restored them to their liberty, and indulged them with a pension, with which they retired into the country, and languished out old age in infamy and obscurity. Their guilty loves were converted unto the most deadly hatred; and they lived several years in the same house, without any intercourse or correspondence with each other.

#### THE PROPHECIES OF RICHARD BROTHERS.

[Concluded from page 56.]

AND their dead bodies shall lie in the street of the Great City, which spiritually is called Sodom in Egypt, where also our Lord was crucified. Rev. xi. 8.

This great city means London: her streets are full of prostitutes, and many of her houses are full of crimes. It is for such exceeding great wickedness that St. John spiritually calls London in this chapter by the name of Sodom, and infers, from the toleration of so much evil, that the two witnesses of Christ, that the two apostles, St. Matthew and St. John, spiritually represented by the two

parts of the gospel which they wrote, that their two bodies lie dead—thrown out in the street—trampled under the foot of vice.

The recorded judgment of God is, that London, for indeed it is the city meant, shall be visited by an earthquake, and a tenth part of it destroyed; in that tenth part, about seven thousand persons will be killed. When the people see this, they will be convinced that it proceeds from the great anger of God, for despising his offered mercy, and treating his messenger ill; then they will all be frightened, and will all believe:—  
then



then the city will honour him by instant reformation, and all the people will implore him for pity.

This designed recorded earthquake will be felt in all nations under heaven as well as in England, and its dreadful effects by most cities in the world as well as London. The earth will be shook so violently at this time as to make it sink in many places, and let the sea flow in where the land was: mountains will sink to a level with valleys, and many islands will disappear for ever in the sea. This earthquake will spread desolation throughout all countries, and destroy great multitudes of people.

The United States of America will declare war against England; but before they do, France will lose all her West-India islands; and after they do, Jamaica will be the last in the possession of the English.

On the 25th of June, 1792, I wrote to the French ambassador then in London, by command of the Lord God, acquainting him with the future loss of the French islands, and likewise the fall of the English. But he treated it in the same manner as all the writings of the prophets of God ever have been, when they sent divine information, when they spoke the truth, when they did not flatter with pleasing words to deceive.

There will great changes take place in all nations under heaven, to fulfil the prophecy of Daniel. Nation will not only rise against nation, but they will be likewise torn by civil wars in themselves; kingdom shall rise against kingdom, and man against man; until they fight and fall—to rise no more. The sword will destroy very great multitudes of people by this war, and occasion frightful desolations over the earth.

The present time of the world, and this present war in its spreading consequences, is the time of trouble and destruction meant by the prophet: this is also the great war recorded by Daniel and St. John, that no man has a knowledge of its progress and how it will end revealed to him but myself: this is the war which will fill up the measure of transgression, and carry the guilt of shedding innocent

blood into all nations: the sword is drawn in heaven, and the cup of fury held out to the earth, according to the prophecies in the scripture, and the visions of God shewn to me, which are recorded by his sacred command in the first book; therefore, she must drink deep from the one, that she may feel less the bitterness of death from the other, until wasted by her inhabitants.

If therefore they will not accept of this gracious offer of mercy for their length of life now, and the good of their children hereafter—all I have mentioned—all the prophecies of Daniel, Haggai, and St. John in the Revelation, which relate to the present time of the world and the present war, will be fulfilled: the sword must go through, and earthquakes will follow soon; thrones will be destroyed, cities levelled with the ground, millions of people will be cut off, and kingdoms will be made desolate for ever.

The Lord God, the better to make all nations believe immediately, and the people I live among regard me as his prophet, for their benefit in future, gave me the true age of the world, by which he fulfils his recorded judgments, and taught me by direct instruction from himself how to write it down; the time of shewing his mercy to the Jews by their restoration; the true meaning of the prophecies, and time of fulfilling them; with his commands to publish the information to the world; that when I am openly revealed to the Hebrews and people of London, (to the former, to order their immediate departure from England under my own direction; to the latter, to convince them the loud thunder in January, 1791, was to proclaim the judgment of God and fall of London: but that the judgment was suspended, and the city pardoned, for my treaty,) and ordered to re-pro-nounce with the power of fire his irrevocable judgments, no nation will be able to say, We were not informed of any offers of mercy from God, or of those things which would lead us to believe the age of the world was so great, and the prophecies of desolation were fulfilling: for the king and principal

principal members of the English government, with nearly all the foreign ambassadors in London for their respective countries, have been informed; and will all besides receive this additional true but lasting information in writing.

And he will speak great words against the Most High; and will wear out the saints of the Most High; and will think to change times and laws: and they will be given into his hand, for a time, and times, and the dividing of time. Dan. vii. 25.

The beginning of this verse means the King of Prussia speaking in blasphemy against God, threatening in great words, as if he possessed the whole power of heaven, to conquer and destroy with his army all cities that do not open to him, and all men that oppose his designs. This was exactly fulfilled by the horn when he entered France in 1792; the proclamations which issued at that time are full of blasphemy against God, presumption for his great army, and violent threats to destroy cities, and cut innocent men in pieces.

And they will be given into his hand, for a time, and times, and the dividing of time. The meaning of which is, that the King of Prussia, although acting in opposition to the will of God (for every man that reads the scripture and believes it to be the Book of Truth, possesses from that moment a knowledge of good and evil, of right and wrong, of what is merciful and what is cruel, of what is pleasing to God, and what is offensive), is permitted to wage a war of injustice against the righteous for three years and a half; during which time, according to the prophecy, he would conquer and destroy great multitudes of them. But my prayers prevailed with God, even against his own recorded judgment by Daniel, for I beseeched him to oppose the unjust designs of the King of Prussia before he invaded France; after he had, to suspend the prophecy, and for my sake to turn him back. The Lord God spoke to me in a vision at night, and said, "He shall go out of France with shame and confusion."

This promise was fulfilled in the year 1792: for, soon after the Prussian army entered France, God led it into such difficult places as to endanger its safety; he also sent the visitation of a wasting sickness that forced it to go away, ashamed and highly disappointed. Although the other parts of the prophecy must necessarily be fulfilled to accomplish the purposes of God, and the destruction of the Prussian monarchy, the king cannot conquer as the judgment intended, but he is permitted to oppose, sometimes defeated with shame and sometimes encouraged by deceitful success, until his armies become weak, and the bear becomes strong; until the proper time arrives for him likewise to fall.

The King of Prussia will have his country destroyed by fire and sword; his power will be taken away, and also his life: the government will be changed, and the monarchy will be abolished for ever.

At the time of my writing to the King of England relative to the King of Prussia, I informed him, as I was commanded, of the certain failure of the combined armies of Prussia and Austria.

As I knew in the beginning of 1792 that the King of England would enter into this war, and by doing so fall under the same judgment from God as the other monarchs shewn in the vision, unless I could by a just explanation of the prophecies persuade him to remain at peace, he will I trust, with the queen and minister of state, do me the justice hereafter to acknowledge that the danger was fully communicated, and that I did not cease in my endeavours to prevent him from joining the confederacy against France, not only for a long time before he intended it, but also after he had—even till the designs of government were ready to be executed by open preparations for hostility.

If this war was like any which has preceded it, a prince might as usual sit down at his leisure, and calculate from his successes how long to carry it on, or by his defeats how soon he must



must leave it off: but the death of Louis the XVIth, and the revolution in France, having proceeded from the recorded judgment of God, the two things which have occasioned it, and which have rendered it so entirely different that its consequences are already determined, will be the same to the monarchs engaged in it as it happens to a man unexpectedly caught in a large trap on forbidden ground;—the pains of death convince him of transgression, before his eyes could warn him of the danger.

I know the judgments of God, by them I am directed, by revelation and through his holy spirit I write. To fulfil then, the seventh chapter of Daniel, and such parts of the Revelation as mean the present time and the same things, the war now carrying on will involve all the nations engaged in it in great distress, and nearly all the princes of Europe in death. As I knew all this a considerable time before the war, I set my heart and my mind to intercede with God, although it was against his recorded judgments, to save the king, and spare the country I live in: I succeeded with God, and obtained an offer of mercy; but could not with man to believe and accept it.

I wish well to the king and queen, and likewise their family; to know all that I have related and more than I am permitted to tell; to know the unavoidable death of him, and afterwards the certain destruction of an amiable woman and her children, would I thought be a crime to reproach for ever the feelings of my heart, if I did not implore, when I knew the great kindness that God had for me, and endeavour by all the means in my power to prevent it.

But in doing this I have subjected myself to the power of human laws, when indeed I had the choice to make them subject to me; for, if I had not become an intercessor by prayer and supplication for the people I live among, I should have been sent away from London. Its fall would soon after take place, and then my revelation, as the next great thing to warn the world, would immediately succeed; but, preferring its safety to

my own immediate advantage, although informed at the time that the people would not believe, that I should be despised, and made suffer, I obtained its pardon at the risque of my own life, and determined to remain in it until my time to be revealed was entirely completed.

I find, yes I feel by dreadful experience, that all men are insensible to the consequences of those judgments recorded in the scripture, and are also exceedingly hardened against believing their true interpretation and time to be fulfilled. That I have suffered by imprisonment and distress more than is proper now to publish, for intreating when I was told that my entreaties were contrary to the prophecies, to save the king and his family; London and its inhabitants; from recorded destruction; God, who is more generous to shew mercy than man is grateful to believe and accept it, is by all this revealed knowledge of his prophecies my witness now, and will in due time, in a short time, be additionally so by terrible signs and mighty wonders.

I have said in the first book, that the fulfilling of the judgments of God, however destructive they might prove to the nations or governments which they are directed against, would not affect my personal safety, nor operate in the least to my prejudice: my elevation is recorded in the scripture, and established by promise to myself;—besides, I am not mortal to human power. But, although I am to be great, far above any prince on earth, and cannot be destroyed by man: although the fall of governments and ruin of nations will not be allowed to affect my personal safety, nor operate in the least to my prejudice; I will not provoke any, but endeavour by a peaceable conduct, civility, and fair words, to make all men believe.

My earnest desire and prayer to God is, that, as he has given me a pre-eminence of favour to all men that were ever upon earth before, I may be able, although I have been in prison, insulted and despised; although my zeal is broke, and my inclination altered; to save, in this country,

Country, one person as well as another; the king, as well as myself; the rich, as well as the poor; all without distinction. For which I request all men to meditate on the present times, and consult with themselves by their knowledge of the scripture, by comparing the leading features of what ruined other great nations unexpectedly, to what are now so suddenly opening to human view, and what are as unexpectedly coming to pass in the world; of the judgments and prophecies to be fulfilled, which every man that has the spirit of conviction to believe, and an understanding to discern, must plainly perceive that the convulsed state of Europe, as it now presents itself, is one of their visible features; and that the sudden great war which occasions it, multiplying still as it lengthens against all forcible endeavours, deceiving when least expected, and turning the prudent foresight of the wise politician to his own ruin, is either the forerunning sign of general dissolution, or some other great and mighty thing.

The Lord God commands me to say, for the information and warning of all men, that between this day and the beginning of the month called June 1795, without mentioning to any person at what particular time in that interval, revelation to the Jews, with a sign the same as Moses in Egypt—and to the people of London, will take place: to the former, to receive the commands of God through me, and to collect all their property and depart in great haste from all nations to their own land: the ships of England, France, Spain, and all Europe, will be obedient to the commands of God to carry home their wealth and all the people that chuse to go by sea: to the latter, to convince them the destruction of London in 1791—according to the eighteenth chapter of the Revelation, would have been fulfilled but for my entreaty. To fulfill the 4th chapter and the 5th verse of the Prophet Malachi, which is, Behold I will send you Elijah the prophet before the coming of the great and dreadful day of the Lord.

I myself am the appointed prophet to fulfil that chapter and character. Therefore I warn all people in all nations—that the terrible day of the Lord alluded to—is nigh; it is not the day of universal judgment, but the day which is to burn like an oven, and which is to consume the wicked from the face of the earth—like the stubble of the field. Then, according to the Prophet Daniel in the seventh chapter, the kingdom, and dominion, and the greatness of the kingdom under the whole heaven, will be given for an everlasting possession to the people and saints of the Most High. Being to be revealed the same as Moses, but in the same spirit and power as Elijah, when he destroyed the soldiers and priests of Ahab, I am to re-pronounce his judgments, to execute them on the false christs and false prophets; and afterwards, to call down fire from heaven to consume the enemies of God.

At this time, which is the time alluded to by the angel informing Daniel, The earth will quake, and rent in many places: the heaven will be convulsed, opening and shutting, and shewing many fearful signs: there will be storms of wind, hail, and showers of rain, with violent thundering and lightning: the very beasts of the field, birds of the air, and fishes of the sea, will be frightened: all the inhabitants of the earth will tremble for their lives, dreading that it is the hour of their dissolution and day of universal judgment; so fierce and terrible will the great anger of God be manifested against a wicked world, professing Christ with their lips, but teaching rebellion against his blessed gospel in their public laws and forms of prayer.

Swearing oaths; the Lord's supper, or taking the sacrament to remember him and commemorate the awful moment when he gave it to his disciples, is made a qualification, even to the most unthinking, abandoned, and wicked, to serve in any public office or employment whatever.

The Lord God commands me to say to you, George the Third, king of England, that immediately on my being revealed in London to the  
Hebrews



Hebrews as their prince, and to all nations as their governor, your crown must be delivered up to me, that all your power and authority may instantly cease. On my being revealed, the invisible power of the angel of God which guards me now will then become visible as a flame of fire; the very same that accompanied Moses and the children of Israel out of Egypt. I must not acknowledge any superior but the Lord Christ, who is the Lord God: and as a man raised up, like David, by him, to be a prince, he commands me to allow no equal, but instantly to burn out of his kingdom the rebellious and disobedient. Read the 41st chapter and 25th verse of Isaiah.

Be advised by this, for evil is going to be let loose; when it is, the King of England will no more believe the signs of God by me, than the King of Egypt would by Moses: therefore, desire your servants to deliver directly to you all letters and messages from me; for it is for your contempt to me that your country is ordered to be invaded, and your power to be destroyed. The tall oak with all its branches cut off, mentioned in one of the visions of God in the preceding part of this book, means yourself and family.

The Lord God commands me to say to you, Nathaniel Brassey Halhed, that as you are reviled and considered by your former acquaintances as ruined and lost for speaking the truth as he manifested it to you, for publishing your testimony of me his ser-

vant, you shall, by the expiration of three months, from this day, have your choice of being either Governor-general of India, or President of the Board of Controul in England; that all men may be convinced that he that rules in Heaven is able to exalt, or to abase; that he is still able, even at this late hour of a wicked world, to reward the obedient to his blessed spirit, and give the most eminent places on earth to whomsoever he pleases.

In obedience to the sacred command of the Lord God, whose servant and prophet I am, I publish this writing, that it may be translated into all languages, for the information and benefit of all nations.

This is the last sign, and the last warning, I am commanded to say, that will be given in writing before I am revealed to the Jews, when the commands delivered to me will be—To order them to depart in great haste from all nations, and go to the land of Israel—to re-pronounce the judgments of God, which have been suspended hitherto for my sake, and declare them irrevocable.

RICHARD BROTHERS.

By an order from the Privy Council, Richard Brothers was taken into custody, and a jury having been empannelled to enquire into the state of his mind, whose verdict found that he was *insane*, he is now confined in a private mad-house, and comfortably provided for, at the expence of government.

#### CONTROVERSY ON THE PROPHECIES OF RICHARD BROTHERS.

THE doctrine of a millenium, or a future paradisaical state of the earth, which Mr. Halhed has endeavoured to calculate in support of Brothers, is not of Christian, but of Jewish, origin. The tradition is attributed to Elijah, which fixes the duration of the world, in its present imperfect condition, to six thousand years, and announces the approach of a sabbath of a thousand years of universal peace and plenty, to be

ushered in by the glorious advent of the Messiah. This idea may be traced in the epistle of Barnabas, and in the opinions of Papais, who knew of no written testimony in its behalf. It was adopted by the author of the Apocalypse, by Justin Martyr, by Irenæus, and by a long succession of the Fathers. As the theory is animating and consolatory, and, when divested of cabbalistic numbers and allegorical decorations, probable, even in

in the eye of philosophy, it will no doubt always retain a number of adherents.

Mr. Halhed is rather too impatient for this pleasing revolution, and labours to inculcate a belief that, on the 19th day of November next, at sun-rise, will begin at Jerusalem this mighty metamorphosis. In order to support his hypothesis, he maintains that Richard Brothers truly estimates the age of the world at 5913 solar years; and that it is to endure only 6000 divine years; which, like those of the Greeks, consist of three hundred and sixty days only, but admit of no embolism. In this notion he by no means stands alone, as we shall shew in our next Number, by giving a circumstantial account of the prophecies concerning the Millenium.

Dr. Horne, who has a second time endeavoured to refute the arguments of Mr. Halhed, still retains his opinion that the bold pretensions of the modern prophets are pregnant with danger to the public. Again he enters the field in order to deliver us from this danger; and, on the ground which he has taken, we think him completely successful; yet we are not convinced of the necessity for keeping alive, in so serious a way, a controversy of such a kind, and thereby giving consequence to the effusions of fanaticism; the current of which, like other sudden torrents, if unopposed, must soon spend their force, subside, and be forgotten.

This writer considers Mr. Halhed's calculations of the millenium, as 'inconsistent, and repugnant to divine revelation;' and to evince this, is the purport of his present pamphlet.

Dr. Horne may puzzle some of his readers by quoting, as he frequently does, 'Dr. Whiston,'—'the learned Dr. Whiston.' He means the famous Mr. Whiston, who was himself a milleniumist, if we may be allowed the word.—He also repeatedly mentions Dr. Clerk; meaning the celebrated Dr. Samuel Clarke. An Oxford doctor might be expected to be more familiarly acquainted with the names and honorary distinctions of learned men, especially men so eminent as Whiston and Clarke; and

who, perhaps, were Dr. Horne's contemporaries.

Mr. Halhed has again replied to Dr. Horne, and affirms that the remarks in his present pamphlet are more abusive and more self-sufficient than his first, and no less deficient in facts. Nay, more, they are stuffed with abominable blasphemies, and gross and wilful lies. The learned answerer enters on a circumstantial refutation of some of these 'lies:' but we are too much concerned to see such a stream of intemperate language flow from the pen of a scholar and a gentleman, to dwell on the particulars.

Having bestowed due chastisement on the Oxford doctor, (if such his antagonist really be,) Mr. Halhed gives us an extraordinary explanation of the "slain lamb of the Revelations," in order to prove that this prefiguration, or type, bore not, as commonly supposed, any reference to Jesus Christ, but to Richard Brothers!

Mr. Halhed is much dissatisfied with the present confinement of Mr. Brothers, by authority, in a private mad-house; which measure he considers as both unjust and cruel. We shall transcribe the account which he gives of Brothers's situation at this time, as we imagine it will gratify the curiosity of many of our readers:

'By an arrest, under warrant of the secretary of state, on suspicion of treasonable practices, was Mr. Brothers deprived of his liberty; by an inconsiderate verdict of a jury, deciding on incompetent evidence, on evidence even worse than none at all, was he surreptitiously incapacitated from every function of civil life, and reduced virtually to the situation of an object to be protected by the new dead body-bill; by a close and severe confinement, already [April 15,] of above six weeks, in an obscure room, in an obscure street, is he robbed of all comfort of light, air, and exercise; and, by a most deliberate refinement of cruelty, from the first moment of his arrest as a traitor, to the present hour of his detention as a mad-man, has he been constantly denied the privilege of seeing a single friend to divert his solitary reflections, or sympathize



sympathize with his unprecedented sufferings.'

Mr. Halhed concludes with some curious 'Remarks on the Departure of the Israelites' from Egypt; in which he traces some wonderful coincidences with the divine appointment of Mr. Brothers to conduct the Hebrews again out of captivity, '*this very year*;'—in order to which, we conceive, it will be necessary for the prophet to be himself released from his present captivity. And it is a certain fact that several families have actually left their residences in various parts of the county of Rutland, and set off to London, on their intended journey to Jerusalem with Richard Brothers. The family of Mafon, from Whisfendine, consisting of a dozen persons; and that of Smart, of Oakham, of five or six more; left their homes about a month since, and are now in London, waiting the manifestation of the prophet!

Mr. Thomas Taylor has published, an additional testimony in vindication of the prophecies of Richard Brothers, which he dates from 'No. 8, Ludgate-hill, 8th day of the 3d month, called March;' and he thereby informs the public that he has had frequent communications with the spirit of God; and that he has never seen Mr. Brothers personally, but that he feels it his duty to bear testimony concerning him.

Mr. Offley, late of Oxford, has come forward with a publication more

elaborate than some of those which have been given as testimonies in favour of the pretensions of Mr. Brothers. Many scriptural and other arguments are here brought to prove that gentleman to be neither lunatic nor impostor. We have no doubt that this is the real opinion of the present writer; who so solemnly declares that, 'from his soul,' he 'believes Mr. Brothers to be the very man he professes himself.' He says Mr. Brothers is a native of Placentia, in Newfoundland; and that he has not any relations in England.

Some Strictures on the Prophecies of Richard Brothers, and on the Parliamentary Conduct of N. B. Halhed, Esq. are published by a Country Curate. If we consider poor Brothers as a lunatic, any degree of harshness which may appear in this attack on him, will reflect little honour on the writer, who appears to be a person of sense and learning, and animated by a laudable zeal for religion and piety: but when we see him engaged so earnestly with Mr. Halhed, and so well "fighting the good fight of faith," we must allow that he will gain real credit by a victory: yet we cannot help thinking him somewhat too severe in certain constructions which he seem to have put on that gentleman's motives for the part which he has, perhaps generously, taken, in regard to this extraordinary affair, so far as it has affected or may affect Mr. Brothers.

## ANNUAL PARLIAMENTS.

AS we are approaching so near a General Election, an attentive perusal of the Duke of Richmond's motion for annual parliaments, ought to be noticed by every elector. The reason he gave for this plan, is, in his own words, as follows:—"That the boroughs in this country are, according to their present constitutions, dangerous to liberty, and a great engine in the hands of ministers, &c." He further says, "that they are the very *sink of corruption*; and enable ministers to *buy and sell* the dignity of the nation." He proves, "that not

more than six thousand voters, at a former general election, absolutely returned a majority of the house of commons." Whether the same, or greater channels of corruption are open at this time, I shall not determine; one thing is certain, the complaints of corruption have been more violent since that period than before; and Mr. Grey has published a list of the members returned, and by what means; that man must be stupidly blind not to discover that the freedom of election is pretty much upon the decline. If we reflect a little upon

upon the methods of returning members to parliament, and shall find that the voice of the people, I mean the aggregate of mankind, is but little consulted upon the occasion:—that there are tens of thousands of sensible men in this kingdom, whose approbation is never consulted upon the occasion, is well known to every man who possesses the faculty of discrimination. That the greatest number of those who have the exclusive privilege of returning members to parliament, are not only totally unacquainted with the characters and abilities of the men for whom they vote; but totally incapacitated from forming any adequate judgment of the requisites necessary for a legislator. We all know that the greatest number of electors are ignorant illiterate men, who are too frequently stimulated by the prospect of procuring advantage to vote for any person who has the means of corruption in his hands. Men who are mean enough to procure seats, by means so scandalously nefarious, cannot be supposed to be influenced by any motives of honour; consequently they will be subservient to any minister who is base enough to squander the public money upon sycophants to abet their measures. Annual parliaments, elected by a majority of the whole nation, would speedily put an end to corruptions of this nature; because a villain could not hope to profit much by exercising his voracious talents for so short a period; besides, should his intentions be discovered and blasted, it would spoil his character among mankind before he had acquired the means of living independent on them. This fact is so well known, that the idea of annual parliaments is always scouted by a minister; not because it is ridiculous, but because it would speedily remove those abuses, which the sharers in them dread to have examined. The late virtuous Lord Lyttleton has left upon record a most eloquent speech in favour of triennial parliaments, which Sir Robert Walpole so much reprobates; but whoever examines the

arguments on both sides, will not be long in deciding who reasons best. If short parliaments had been found to have dangerous effects, and on that account had been laid aside; or had the advocates for the renewal of them been of bad, or even dubious, principles; there would have been strong reasons for opposing the scheme; but when good members, at different periods, strenuously urged their necessity to prevent corruption; and that the known sharers in corruption have always uniformly opposed the measure; reason is most certainly on the side of short parliaments. More words on the subject appear unnecessary; words more frequently bewilder and mislead the judgment than direct it: trace the outline, and let reason determine on its accuracy.

To render annual parliaments more palatable, as well as facile, a law should be enacted for all freeholders to be convened in their respective parish churches at vestry meetings, to be called by the churchwardens respectively, on ten days notice being given for that purpose; and that the parish-officers be empowered to take the poll, under the inspection of two of the most considerable landholders in each parish. That duplicate poll-books should be provided at the parish expence; one of which to be deposited in the parish chest, and the other transmitted, under the oaths of the parish-officers and inspectors that it is correct and true, to the high sheriff of the county; who, on casting up the poll of each parish thus taken, should declare the candidate so chosen as duly elected as though the same had been taken in his presence. The scene of corruption, of perjury, of expence and dissipation, which might by this simple mode be saved and prevented, must be obvious to every one, and is the only feasible means of preventing undue influence, of enabling the subordinate freeholders to vote according to their conscience, and of restoring the constitution to its pristine energy and vigour.

SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## O D E

For his MAJESTY'S BIRTH-DAY.

*By James Henry Pye, Esq. Poet-Laureat.*

NOT from the trumpet's brazen throat  
Be now the martial measure blown;  
Mild concord breathes a softer note,  
To greet a triumph all her own:  
Wafted on pleasure's downy wings,  
A nearer joy than conquest brings,  
Now soothes the royal parent's breast;  
By rosy wreaths of Hymen bound,  
A nation's fervent vows are crown'd,  
A much-lov'd son is blest.

While crowds on this returning morn  
Their willing homage pay,  
And shouts of heartfelt gladness born  
O'ercome the Muse's lay;  
Amid the Pæans choral sound,  
While dying faction's shrieks are drown'd,  
O sovereign of a people's choice!  
Hear, in a people's general voice,  
The noblest praise that waits a throne;  
Their surest guard, thy patriot zeal,  
Thy public care, their strength they feel,  
Thy happiness their own.

O royal youth! a king's, a parent's, pride,  
A nation's future hope!—again the  
tongue  
That join'd the choir, what time by Isis'  
side

Her tuneful sons thy birth auspicious  
sung,  
Now hails, fulfill'd by Hymen's hallow'd  
flame,  
The warmest wish affection's voice could  
frame;  
For say, can fame, can fortune, know,  
Such genuine raptures to bestow,  
As from the smiles of wedded love arise,  
When heavenly virtue beams from blushing  
beauty's eyes?

Ne'er may the rapid hours that wing  
O'er time's unbounded field their cease-  
less flight,  
To grateful Britain's monarch bring  
A tribute of less pure delight:  
Ne'er may the song of duty sooth his ear,  
With strains of weaker joy, or transports  
less sincere.

ADDRESS to the NIGHTINGALE.

SWEET bird! that kindly perching  
near,  
Pourest thy plaints melodious in my ear,  
Not, like base worldlings, tutor'd to forego  
The melancholy haunts of woe;

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Thanks for thy sorrow-soothing strain:  
For surely thou hast known to prove,  
Like me, the pangs of hapless love;  
Else why so feelingly complain,  
And with thy piteous notes thus sadden  
all the grove?

Say, dost thou mourn my ravish'd mate,  
That oft enamour'd on thy strains has  
hung?

Or has the cruel hand of fate  
Bereft thee of thy darling young?

Alas for both I weep!—  
In all the pride of youthful charms,  
A beauteous bride torn from my circling  
arms!

A lovely babe, that should have liv'd to  
bless

And fill my doating eyes with frequent  
tears,

At once the source of rapture and distress,  
The flattering prop of my declining  
years!

In vain from death to rescue I essay'd,  
By every art that science could devise;  
Alas! it languish'd for a mother's aid,  
And wing'd its flight to seek her in  
the skies.—

Then O! our comforts be the same,

At ev'ning's peaceful hour,  
To shun the noisy paths of wealth and  
fame,

And breathe our sorrows in this lonely  
bow'r.

But why, alas! to thee complain!

To thee—unconscious of my pain!

Soon shalt thou cease to mourn thy lot  
severe,

And hail the dawning of a happier year:  
The genial warmth of joy renewing  
spring

Again shall plume thy shatter'd wing;  
Again thy little heart shall transport  
prove.

Again shall flow thy notes responsive to  
thy love.

But O! for me in vain may seasons roll,  
Nought can dry up the fountain of my  
tears;

Deploring still the comfort of my soul,  
I count my sorrows by increasing years.

SOLDIER KILLING A BOAR.

FORTH from the thicket rush'd ano-  
ther boar,

So large, he seem'd the tyrant of the  
woods,

With all his dreadful bristles rais'd up  
high;

They seem'd a grove of spears upon his  
back:

N

Foaming

Foaming he came at me, where I was  
 posted,  
 Whetting his huge long tusks, and gaping  
 wide,  
 As he already had me for his prey;  
 Till, brandishing my well-pois'd javelin  
 high,  
 With this bold executing arm I struck  
 The ugly brindled monster to the heart.

#### AN INDIAN LOVER TO HIS DYING MISTRESS.

ONLY object of my care,  
 Who of love the victim are;  
 I my tears consent to give,  
 Do but you consent to live;  
 Hear your faithful friend's desire,  
 Live, that I may not expire.

Oft your tender lips will tell,  
 You cannot cease to love me well;  
 Alas! no other friend have I,  
 But cruel you, who wish to die!  
 Hear your faithful slave's desire,  
 Live, that I may not expire.

On you, whom fortune seems to hate,  
 Alone depends my future fate;  
 Alas! no other friend have I,  
 But cruel you, who wish to die:  
 Hear your faithful slave's desire,  
 Live, that I may not expire.

#### THE AUCTIONEER.

*Sung in the new Entertainment of the GOLF  
 CLUB.*

FINE, to see the bidders thronging;  
 Young and old for bargains longing!  
 Nankeen China, fresh from Worc'ster;  
 Bristol diamonds set in cluster:  
 Gems and medals without number;  
 Silver plate and learned lumber.

While around the pretty creatures  
 Nod their chins and cock their features:  
 Graceful in the rostrum, mind him,  
 Little Lotty snug behind him:  
 Noise and joke, and money flowing,  
 Sweet's the sound of—Going! going!

First of relics, note the humbug,  
 Barberini's famous one jug;  
 Next of books, the heap might crush ye,  
 Turkish korans—bound in Russia!  
 Peter Pindar,—Tony Pasquin,  
 All be-gilt and drest in calf-skin.

Whilst around, &c. &c.

Antique paintings scarcely dry'd up;  
 Busts and statues, vastly cry'd up;  
 Headless sages; armless heroes;  
 Cæsars, Antonines, and Neroes!  
 Egypt's mummies, fresh as roses;  
 Mars and Venus without noses!

Whilst around, &c.

#### ON COMMERCE.

IN early days, ere uninstructed man  
 The various arts of hoarding wealth  
 began,  
 Or ere his breast inbred pernicious pride,  
 Imbrown'd industry all his wants sup-  
 ply'd;  
 And mutual wants to mutual knowledge  
 brought,  
 And commerce sprung with every blessing  
 fraught.  
 But, in man's frail and fluctuating breast  
 No blessing stays, or stays to make him  
 blest.  
 For commerce fair, for every good de-  
 sign'd,  
 At once to bless and civilize mankind:  
 Pride soon perverted from its simple plan,  
 And now pursues what industry began.  
 From commerce wealth, from wealth  
 pride still will flow;  
 From the same source spring happiness  
 and woe.

#### ON PITY.

HOW blest the heart, that at the tale  
 of woe  
 Expands with pity's pure celestial throe,  
 That holds each hapless child of sorrow  
 dear,  
 And gives to misery the tender tear:  
 When the mild breast with soft compas-  
 sion moves,  
 Recording heaven the generous thought  
 approves.

#### S O N N E T,

BY MISS ROBINSON.

THE shepherd boy on yonder moun-  
 tain's crest  
 Chaunts his rude carrol to the morn-  
 ing gale;  
 Or marks with tranquil eye, and thought-  
 less breast,  
 Pale twilight's shadows stealing o'er  
 the vale.

But I, alas! unconscious of repose,  
 Count the long tedious hours with  
 many a sigh;  
 While my sad heart no tender solace  
 knows,  
 Save the fond hope to see thee once and  
 die.

Oh! Henry, when this fading form shall  
 freeze,  
 Beneath the hallowed turf for ever laid,  
 While o'er my bosom moans the midnight  
 breeze,  
 Say, wilt thou drop one tear to soothe  
 my shade?  
 Some wealthy maid thy darling bride  
 shall be,  
 I'll boast the proudest bliss to die for thee.

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

HORSE-GUARDS, *May 23.*

A DISPATCH, of which the following is an extract, has been received from Lieutenant-general David Dundas, by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, and transmitted by his royal highness to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

DIEPHOLTZ, *May 9.* We have just heard that the Austrians have been successful, though not without the loss of six or seven hundred men, in driving the French from the post of Mombach, near Mayence, and on the heights; before which place they will establish part of their army.

[The mails give the following account of this action:

FRANKFORT, *May 1.* General Clairfayt's army was put in motion yesterday. At four in the morning a heavy cannonade was heard in the direction of Mentz, proceeding from several points: it lasted without interruption till eleven. The Austrians, having been reinforced the evening before by several corps of cavalry and infantry, attacked the French near Hardenberg, and drove them into Mombach, where they established themselves after a severe action. Three or four guns, and several prisoners, taken from the French, have been carried into Mentz.

*May 2.* By the actions of the 30th ult. the Austrians succeeded in relieving Hardenberg, and in throwing up fresh entrenchments for its security. In the afternoon, the French attempted to recover the ground they had lost. All their efforts were, however, unavailing, and on this occasion they lost a great number of men by the discharges of musquetry: those who were not thus taken off were either dispatched by the sabres of the cavalry or made prisoners. In killed, wounded, and prisoners, their loss is estimated at nearly two thousand men. During the action they threw several shells into Mentz, by which four or five houses were damaged. The French, apprehensive that the Austrians may attempt to cross the Rhine near Mentz, have conveyed thither a strong force with artillery; and this has made a very important diversion.

*May 3.* As soon as the French had been driven from the ground which they occupied, the imperialists began to throw up an intrenchment on the heights, which they effected, notwithstanding the incessant fire of all the French batteries and

cannon placed in the wood of Mombach. The attack of the French in the afternoon was directed against the centre of the position; it was made in two strong columns well provided with artillery.—A battalion of the archduke waited to receive their fire, and then rushed in upon them with the bayonets, while the artillery, from the redoubts recently constructed, fired case-shot upon the flank of the French column, and made a dreadful slaughter. In their retreat, the hussars of Wurmsfer took them in the rear, and did considerable execution. Our small marine did some service, and proceeded two leagues below Mentz, in order to alarm the French. This movement made them suppose that the passage of the Rhine was to be attempted; they accordingly brought a great quantity of artillery and a powerful force to that point.]

ARANJUEZ, *May 6.* The Spanish army in Catalonia encamped on the 23d ult. General Urrutia's head-quarters remained at Gerona.

On the 27th the enemy made an attack on the post of Vascara, and were repulsed with loss. They met with no better success in an attempt they made, on the same day, to force the post of Besalu.

MADRID, *April 14.* The corvettes La Scoperta and L'Audace, and La Sottile goletta, that sailed from Cadiz about the end of July 1789, have returned from a voyage on discoveries on the coast of South America, and the adjacent islands, from Cape Horn to the extremity of that coast. The navigators in this voyage are convinced that there is no passage from thence into the Atlantic Ocean, between the latitudes of 59 and 61. The Sottile and Messicana golettas, being detached from the rest ever since the commencement of the year 1792, in concert with the English vessels, under Captain Vancouver, contributed very much towards determining upon the position of the immense archipelago, known under the name of the Admiral Fronte y Gio de Fucca, and employed the greatest part of that year in examining the islands of Mariana, the Philippines, and that of Macoa, upon the coast of China; keeping company from the island of Mandaoa to those of New Guinea, and from thence passing the line to the eastward, they sailed upwards of five hundred leagues upon an unknown sea: they also traversed the New Hebrides, visited New Zealand,

New Holland, and the Friendly Islands, taking their course by that of Babou, never before discovered by any other navigator:—and, what is mentioned as peculiar to this voyage is, that it had not cost humanity a drop of blood, or a single tear; the natural death of Don Antonio Pineda being the most lamentable event in the whole expedition, the particulars of which were to be published, under the inspection of Captain Malaspina.

#### STATE PAPERS.

##### *Treaty between Great Britain and the Emperor of Germany.*

Art. I. In order to assist the efforts which his imperial majesty is desirous of making, and to facilitate to him the means of bringing forward the resources of his dominions, in the defence of the common cause, his Britannic majesty engages to propose to his parliament to guarantee the regular payment of the half-yearly dividends, on the sum of 4,600,000*l.* sterling, which is or is to be raised on account of his imperial majesty, on the terms and in the manner specified in the two engagements or octrois, the tenor of which is annexed to this convention; his imperial majesty solemnly engaging to his Britannic majesty that he will make due provision for the regular discharge of the payments which shall become due in consequence of the said loans, so as that those payments shall never fall as a burden to the finances of Great Britain.

II. In return for the stipulation contained in the preceding article, and by the means of the said loan of 4,600,000*l.* sterling, assured by the guarantee of Great Britain, his imperial majesty shall employ in his different armies, in the ensuing campaign, a number of troops, which shall not only amount at least to 200,000 effective men, but which his imperial majesty will exert himself, as much as possible, to augment even above that number; which troops shall act against the common enemy, according to the dispositions agreed upon by a secret article, forming a part of this convention.

III. The emperor will see with pleasure the appointment of general officers, or other persons of confidence, to be present with his armies on the part of his Britannic majesty, to whom all the necessary communication and information will be furnished, with respect to the state and strength of the armies, and the number of troops of which they may consist; and if, in order to facilitate and promote the correspondence and communication between the armies of the two courts, his imperial majesty shall think proper to send

an officer, or other person, on his part, to the English armies, they shall, in like manner, receive from the generals of his Britannic majesty all such marks of confidence as are most analogous to the intimate union so happily subsisting between the two courts.

IV. It is expressly agreed, that the said loan is to rest on the security of all the revenues of all the different hereditary dominions of his imperial majesty. All the necessary measures shall be taken on the part of his imperial majesty, in each of the said dominions respectively, to give full and legal effect and validity to the said loan, and to the engagements for the regular payment of the half-yearly dividends which shall fall due in consequence thereof, so that if at any time there should happen, from whatever cause, to be any delay in any of the payments, after the period of their falling due, the holders of the securities granted, or to be granted, on the part of his imperial majesty, for the said loan, may sue the receivers or treasurers of his imperial majesty's revenues, in any of the said dominions, at the option of such holders, and may recover from them, or any of them, by due course of law, the full amount of such payments having so fallen due, in the same manner as any private individuals are admitted in the said dominions respectively to prosecute and recover their just rights against other private persons.

V. If it should ever happen that, contrary to all expectation, any part of the dividends due on the said loans should, in consequence of the failure of the payments stipulated to be made by his imperial majesty, be paid by the British government, it is agreed that such payments shall be made at the bank of England, and only on the delivery of tallies or certificates of the dividends so respectively paid; and every such tally or certificate so delivered up shall be valid and legal security, so as to enable the holder thereof to sue any of the receivers or treasurers of his imperial majesty's revenues, in any of his dominions aforesaid, at the option of such holder, and to recover from them, or any of them, the full amount of the sum expressed in such tally or certificate, with interest thereon at the rate of five per cent. per annum, to be reckoned from the date of the payment to be made by the British government. And whereas it is provided, in the terms agreed upon for raising the said loans, that, as a collateral security for the said loans, there shall be deposited in the bank of England mortgage actions of the bank of Vienna, for a sum, in the proportion of four to three of the loan



to be so raised; it is further agreed, that the governor and company of the said bank shall, in case of any such payment as aforesaid being made by the British government, be authorized to withdraw from the said deposit such a quantity of the said actions, as shall be required to make up at least the proportion of four pounds for every three which shall be so paid by the British government, to be by the said government either used as a security or claim upon the bank of Vienna, until re-payment of the said sum, and of the interest due thereon, or negociated at the time to such extent as may be necessary in order to effect such reimbursement, according as to the said government may seem most eligible; and that the quantity of actions directed the committee of legislation to report on so withdrawn shall be deducted from or set off against any quantity, which, according to the terms of the said loan, might thereafter be to be withdrawn from the said deposit, in proportion to the gradual redemption of the bonds, and the payment of the annuities, as is specified in the conditions of the said loan.

VI. And whereas certain advances have been made by the British government to his imperial majesty on account and by way of loan; it is agreed that the same shall be repaid at London in the course of the present year, in exchange for the receipts given by the generals commanding in chief the imperial army, and conformably to the sums contained in the said receipts. The said advances shall be reimbursed at latest, in two equal parts, in the months of November and December, so that the total shall be reimbursed before the expiration of the present year.

VII. The present convention shall be ratified on each side, without any delay, and the exchange of the ratifications, expedited in due form, shall be made within the space of one month at latest.

In witness whereof we, the undersigned, being furnished with the full powers of their imperial and British majesties, have in their names signed the present act, and thereto set the seal of our arms.

Done at Vienna, the 4th day of May 1795.

(L. S.) LE BONDE THUGHT.

(L. S.) MORTON EDEN.

*Tenor of the Second Octroi.*

Francis, by the Grace of God, Emperor of the Romans, &c. &c. To all who shall see these presents, greeting:

The wants of our service requiring an augmentation of extraordinary resources, we have resolved to open a new loan of 1,600,000l. sterling, at the house of Walter

Boyd, Paul Benfield, and James Drummond, merchants, at London, under the firm of Boyd, Benfield, and Co. upon the same engagements, conditions, and stipulations, as that of 3,000,000l. sterling, already opened by them on our account, by the octroi of the 18th of May 1794; which engagements, conditions, and stipulations, shall be deemed to be herein inserted, at the same rate of proportion as exists between the capital sums of the two loans; provided, that, for the security of the lenders, as well as those who are or shall be concerned in the first loan of 3,000,000l. sterling, as those who shall be parties in the present, we engage, assign, and destine, thereto, by the present octroi, all our royal revenues in our hereditary dominions, kingdoms, and provinces, without exception; engaging, moreover, in further augmentation for the security of the second loan, as we have done for the first, to remit as a collateral security, to the said Messrs. Boyd, Benfield, and Co. actions in mortgage of the bank of Vienna, bearing an interest of 5 per cent. for a sum proportioned to this second loan, upon the footing stipulated by the twelfth article of the octroi of the 18th of May 1794, above recited. For such is our good pleasure.

In witness whereof we have signed these presents, and caused our great seal to be set thereto. Given at Vienna, the 4th of May, in the year of our Lord 1795, and of our reigns of the Roman empire and of the hereditary dominions the third year.

TRAUT, Vt.

(Signed) By the Emperor and King.  
FRANCIS. P. DU RIEUX.

[It is curious to observe, that the emperor's Rescript, which here follows, declaring his willingness to make peace, is dated on the same day with the treaty for the loan with Great Britain, by which he engages himself to carry on the war.]

*Rescript of the Emperor, presented by the Imperial Minister to the States of the Germanic Empire, in Diet assembled at Ratisbon, on the 4th of May 1795.*

The ministers of his imperial majesty are charged to declare, in the name of his majesty the emperor and king, to the envoys representing the several princes and states of the holy Roman empire, that his majesty is ready to enter into negotiations with the French republic. His majesty, without being too mindful of his own interest, will consult thereby the real welfare of the empire, and make it his sole care to procure to the empire an acceptable, solid, and permanent, peace.

But

But his imperial majesty has also, at the same time, the just confidence in all his co-states of the empire, that they will co-operate, with all their power, to accomplish this desirable end, and not enter into separate negotiations with the French republic. His imperial majesty expects, however, the speediest declarations on this subject, and the imperial commissioner will soon present a declaration from the emperor and king, explanatory of the sentiments of his imperial majesty. In other respects his imperial majesty cannot conceal, that the separate treaty of peace concluded on the part of his Prussian majesty, even in his quality of a prince and co-estate of the empire, has been most unexpected to him.

*Declaration, or Decree, of the Emperor, under date the 19th of May, presented to the Diet of Ratisbon, relative to an honourable Peace.*

It being a well-known fact, that a treaty of peace and friendship has been concluded between the French nation and his Prussian majesty as Elector of Brandenburg and a co-estate of the German empire, and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries on the 5th ultimo, since which the ratification referred to in the twelfth article of the said treaty has been carried into effect :

Plainness and candour of declaration to the electors, princes, and states, of the empire, never appeared so necessary to his imperial majesty as at this period, partly to do away the doubts and fears which might be spread, either by misunderstanding the true situation of affairs, or from a misinterpretation of the most sincere and pure intentions of his imperial majesty, but partly and principally from a paternal purpose, heartily and constitutionally to unite with the electors, princes, and states, in perfect imperial confidence in their German patriotism, in the adoption of such measures as may appear proper in the present important crisis of the German constitution, of the system of the liberty of the empire, and the dignity and existence of its body politic.

His imperial majesty does not think himself necessitated to state, by facts, his true adherence to the German constitution and its support, and his careful endeavours for promoting and securing the common weal of the empire; his reign, from its commencement and during its continuance, having, exclusive of uncommon sacrifices of the Archducal house,

given the most unequivocal proofs thereof.

These constitutional sentiments, and the most sincere participations, as head of the empire, induced his imperial majesty to acquiesce in the measures adopted by the empire under the 22d of last December, to lay a foundation for a future equitable, just, honourable, and solid, peace; at which time his pleasure was declared equally about its deliberative introduction respecting the approbation of the empire in retrospect with the King of Prussia, to conclude the desired peace.—And having given his assurances not only to instruct the diet in the nature of this great work, but even promised his co-operation (notwithstanding the weighty charge of the imperial office), in the attainment of this salutary object, his imperial majesty's zeal for the concerns of the empire cannot but be obvious to every impartial mind.

His imperial majesty did not omit taking the first step to attain this salutary work, when, on the 14th of February, the day on which the decree of the empire, respecting war or peace, was agitated in the diet, he ordered his accredited minister at the court of Berlin to deliver the subjoined note to the Prussian ministry, which, considered in all its points, has not only for its basis an acquiescence for peace, but an acknowledgment of the necessity, in conjunction with his Prussian majesty, to procure for the empire all the ease which might be effected by a future treaty of peace; more especially as the said king had caused to be declared to the diet, that he would do all in his power to obtain a peace, and that tranquillity so earnestly desired by the empire.

The Answer of his Prussian Majesty to the aforesaid Declaration, is dated the 26th of February, and arrived at the imperial court on the 14th of March.—If, on the one hand, his imperial majesty alludes to the universal desires of the states of the empire, for a peace to be concluded on the fundamental constitution of the empire, and agreeable to the treaty of Westphalia, upon just, solid, lasting, and honourable principles, his imperial majesty cannot, on the other part, perceive, after duly weighing the answer, the promised ease and that paternal calmness wished for by him in the attainment of this pacific object. In the interim, the Prussian minister of state, de Hardenberg, a few days after the Prussian ministerial note had been signed, went from Berlin to Balle with new credentials,



tials, dated the 28th of February, purposely to continue and finish the negotiation of peace which had been begun by the late Count de Goltz, a major-general in the Prussian service, and that king's plenipotentiary minister, in virtue of an appointment dated the 8th of December 1794, the result of which peace negotiations is now universally known.

The situation of things having been greatly altered by this separate peace, it is not only the well-meaning conviction of his imperial majesty, but becomes indispensably necessary for the electors, princes, and states, in order to the acceleration of an universal peace, to send, agreeable to the treaty of Westphalia, and their right of co-operation, a deputation for a congress of peace, in the smallest possible numbers, and to deliver their opinions thereon to his imperial majesty.

His majesty in the mean time eagerly expects the approbation of the empire: the electors, princes, and states, have, according to the Leopoldian electoral capitulation of 1790, on account of their immediate influence or interest in peace negotiations, a full right and title to send their own ambassadors, who, notwithstanding, according to a declaration of our imperial predecessor, Joseph I. of glorious memory, made to the diet on the 18th of July 1790, are to be necessarily admonished by the emperor and the empire, not to abuse their powers (as might

have been done from time to time by some of them), in not considering themselves as estates of the empire, nor the countries possessed by them, on whose account it is done, as districts of the empire, but in such a manner as to acknowledge the connection with his imperial majesty and the empire, upon which their true greatness and happiness depend.

The political importance and weight of Germany is founded upon a happy concordance of the universal will of the empire and electors, princes and estates, legally combined with their head and its lasting weal, upon a regard of inviolability of its principles and the decrees of the empire.

His imperial majesty himself is subject to the laws: he has, as the executor of the laws, the constitutional confidence, as head to the electors, princes, and states, that they will not act in the present important consideration of affairs, respecting the peace of the empire, against the contents of the treaty of Westphalia, and the decree of the empire of the 30th of April 1793, according to its whole tenor, which shews the necessity of persevering in their endeavours until Germany is delivered from an unexampled war, and until a just, honourable, and equitable, peace, so earnestly wished for, can be reitored to the empire upon constitutional and just principles.

## NAVAL PROMOTIONS.

### ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, June 1.

**T**HIS day, in pursuance of the king's pleasure, the following Flag-officers of his majesty's fleet were promoted, viz.

William Lloyd, Esq. Mark Milbanke, Esq. Nicholas Vincent, Esq. Right Hon. Thomas Lord Graves, Robert Digby, Esq. Right Hon. Alexander Lord Bridport, K. B. Admirals of the Blue, *to be Admirals of the White.*

Joseph Peyton, Esq. John Carter Allen, Esq. Sir Charles Middleton, Bart. Sir John Laforey, Bart. John Dalrymple, Esq. Herbert Sawyer, Esq. Sir Richard King, Bart. Jonathan Faulknor, Esq. and Philip Affleck, Esq. Vice-admirals of the Red, *to be Admirals of the Blue.*

Sir John Jervis, K. B. and Adam Duncan, Esq. Vice-admirals of the White, *to be Admirals of the Blue.*

Richard Brathwaite, Esq. Philip Cosby, Esq. Samuel Cornish, Esq. John Brisbane, Esq. Charles Wolseley, Esq. Samuel Cranston Goodall, Esq. his Royal High-

ness William Henry duke of Clarence, Richard Onslow, Esq. and Robert Kingsmill, Esq. Vice-admirals of the White, *to be Vice-admirals of the Red.*

Sir George Bowyer, Bart. Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. Benjamin Caldwell, Esq. and Hon. William Cornwallis, Vice-admirals of the Blue, *to be Vice-admirals of the Red.*

William Allen, Esq. John M<sup>r</sup>Bride, Esq. George Vandeput, Esq. Charles Buckner, Esq. John Gell, Esq. William Dickson, Esq. and Sir Alan Gardner, Bart. Vice-admirals of the Blue, *to be Vice-admirals of the White.*

John Lewis Gidoin, Esq. George Gaston, Esq. George Murray, Esq. Robert Linzee, Esq. Sir James Wallace, Knt. William Peere Williams, Esq. and Sir Thomas Pasley, Bart. Rear-admirals of the Red, *to be Vice-admirals of the White.*

John Symons, Esq. and Sir Thomas Rich, Bart. Rear-admirals of the Red, *to be Vice-admirals of the Blue.*

Charles

Charles Thompson, Esq. James Cumming, Esq. John Ford, Esq. John Colpoys, Esq. Skeffington Lutwidge, Esq. Archibald Dickson, Esq. George Montague, Esq. Thomas Dumaresque, Esq. and Hon. Sir George Keith Elphinstone, K. B. Rear-admirals of the White, *to be Vice-admirals of the Blue.*

James Piggot, Esq. and Hon. William Waldegrave, Rear-admirals of the Blue, *to be Vice-admirals of the Blue.*

Thomas Mackenzie, Esq. Thomas Pringle, Esq. Sir Roger Curtis, Knt. Henry Hervey, Esq. Robert Man, Esq. William Parker, Esq. Charles Holmes Everitt Calmady, Esq. John Bourmaster, Esq. Sir George Young, Knt. John Henry, Esq. and Richard Rodney Bligh, Esq. Rear-admirals of the Blue, *to be Rear-admirals of the Red.*

The undermentioned Captains were also appointed Flag-officers of his majesty's fleet, viz.

Alexander Græme, Esq. George Keppel, Esq. Samuel Reeve, Esq. Robert Biggs, Esq. Francis Parry, Esq. Isaac Prescott, Esq. John Bazely, Esq. Christopher Mason, Esq. Thomas Spry, Esq. Sir John Orde, Bart. William Young, Esq. and James Gambier, Esq. *to be Rear-admirals of the White.*

Andrew Mitchell, Esq. Charles Chamberlayne, Esq. Peter Ranier, Esq. Hugh Cloberry Christian, Esq. William Truscott, Esq. Right Hon. Lord Hugh Seymour, John Stanhope, Esq. Christopher Parker, Esq. Philip Patton, Esq. Charles Maurice Pole, Esq. John Brown, Esq. and John Leigh Douglas, Esq. *to be Rear-admirals of the Blue.*

[The following Captains have been passed over in the above promotion:—R. Palliser Cooper, Hon. Thomas Windsor, A. J. Pye Molloy, Sir W. Cleyton, Tho. Gaborian, Farmery Epworth, Robert Simenton, Harry Harwood, Thomas Lloyd, John Kendall, and William Cumming.]

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, June 1. The king having signified to my lords commissioners of the admiralty his royal pleasure that the uniform clothing at present worn by the flag-officers, captains, and commanders, of his royal navy, shall be altered in the manner undermentioned,

Their lordships do hereby give notice thereof to all flag-officers, captains, and commanders, and require and direct them strictly to conform thereto.

EVAN NEPEAN.

*Flag-officers Full Drefs.* Blue coat, with blue lappels, and round cuffs, the lappels to have one row of gold lace, and the

cuffs and pockets two; laced button-holes; two gold epaulettes: gold-laced hat, white lining: white waistcoat and breeches.

The rank of the respective flag-officers to be distinguished as follows, viz.

Admirals.—Three silver stars on each epaulette, and three rows of lace on the sleeves.

Vice-admirals.—Two, ditto, ditto.

Rear-admirals.—One, ditto, ditto.

*Flag-officers Undress.* Plain blue coats, lappelled, with the buttons now in use on the sleeves and pockets. Ranks to be distinguished by epaulettes and rows of lace on the sleeves, as in the full drefs.

*Captains Post of three Years, Full Drefs.* Blue coat with blue lappels, and long slash sleeve, as formerly worn: the lappels to have one row of gold lace, and the cuffs and pockets two: two plain gold epaulettes: white lining: white waistcoats and breeches: gold-laced hat.

*Ditto Undress.* Plain blue coats, lappelled: buttons on the sleeves and pockets: epaulettes to take off and put on occasionally: plain hat, and blue breeches, as may be convenient.

*Captains under three Years, Full Drefs.* The same in every respect as post captains of three years, but to wear only one epaulette on the right shoulder.

*Ditto Undress.* The same as post captains of three years, with the difference of wearing but one epaulette, as in the full drefs.

*Commanders. Full Drefs.* The same as post captains, with a plain gold epaulette on the left shoulder.

*Ditto Undress.* The same as post captains, with a plain gold epaulette, as in the full drefs, to take off and put on occasionally.

N. B. The lace to be of the same pattern as was in use previously to the year 1787; but that to be worn by flag-officers to be of greater breadth than that of the captains.

Officers will be allowed to wear their present uniform till the 1st of June 1796.

Pattern suits, with the laces and buttons, may be seen at the admiralty-office.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, June 6. The king has been pleased to appoint Horatio Nelson, Esq. the Hon. Thomas Pakenham, and the Hon. George Berkely, to be colonels of his majesty's marine forces, in the room of William Young, Esq. James Gambier, Esq. and the Right Hon. Lord Hugh Seymour, appointed flag-officers of his majesty's fleet.



## ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF EDWARD III.

**U**NDER Edward III. the constitution of our parliaments assumed an independent form, and the whole frame of our government, was established on the fundamental principles of strict and equal justice. A love of liberty breathes in all his laws, and the detested spirit of persecution under pretences of high treason was abridged, at Edward's express command, who wisely threw himself into the bosom of his people; though no king knew how to make himself more absolute. As the father lost his crown and his life, in the most miserable manner, by suffering himself to be governed by his ministers, and protecting them from the resentments of the people; so the son very early exerted his own authority, and freed himself from the guardianship, or rather subjection, of his mother the queen, and her paramour, who had long oppressed the nation, and dishonoured him, by their scandalous conduct.

Edward III. well knew, that a conquering monarch was fittest to please a warlike people. The Scots had long triumphed with impunity; he therefore began his reign by reducing them to the most distressful circumstances, and once more brought them to acknowledge his sovereignty over their crown. But he was soon drawn off from these conquests to objects of greater victories: a new scene began to be opened in France, and Europe, in suspense, began to doubt whether Edward's claim to that kingdom were secured to him by right of inheritance, or by the rights of conquest. France, at that time, was by no means so extensive as at present: it comprehended neither Dauphiny, nor Provence, nor Franche Comté. It was rendered still more feeble from the nature of its government: several powerful neighbours, who pretended to be the vassals of that crown, rather served to weaken than strengthen the monarch. After the death of Louis Huttin, king of France, a question arose about the

validity of the Salic law. Louis had left an only daughter, and two brothers: the elder, Philip the Tall, assumed the crown, in prejudice of Huttin's daughter, and attempted to cover his usurpation by the Salic law. The younger brother, Charles the Fair, jealous of his elder brother's fortune, opposed his pretensions, and asserted the daughter's right to succeed. This cause was carried before the French parliament, and decided in favour of Philip. This monarch enjoyed the crown but a short time, and, dying, left only daughters to succeed him. Charles the Fair, however, was now of a different sentiment from what he had been formerly; he now maintained the law for the exclusion of females, because it made in his favour. He seized the crown without opposition, and enjoyed it for some time, but, dying, left his queen with child. As there was now no apparent heir, the next heir to the crown was to be regent, and two persons asserted their claim upon this occasion: Edward III. had laid his claim, as being, by his mother Isabella, who was daughter of Philip the Fair, and sister to the three last kings of France, rightful heir to the French crown. Philip Valois, on the other hand, had seized upon it, as being the next heir by the male succession. The claims of Philip were preferred; he was constituted regent of France, and, the queen being unfortunately brought-to-bed of a daughter, he was unanimously elected king. He was crowned by his subjects with universal satisfaction, had the appellation of Philip the Fortunate given him; and to this he added those which might merit good fortune, virtue and justice. Among other instances of his felicity, he might reckon that of the homage paid him by Edward, his rival, which he came to offer at Amiens: however, this homage was soon followed by a war, and Edward disputed that crown of which he had just before declared himself the vassal.

A brewer at Ghent was one of those who gave the greatest assistance to Edward in this war, and determined him to assume the title of King of France. This citizen's name was James Ardevet, grown too powerful for a subject, and one of those, according to Machiavel, whom kings ought to flatter or destroy. Thus assisted, Edward made a powerful invasion. Upon landing, he was challenged by Philip to try their fortune upon equal terms, in some appointed plain. Edward accepted the challenge, for in every action this prince was the hero; but, Philip declining, the war was prosecuted in the usual manner, by taking every advantage where it happened to offer.

In these battles there is little material. It is sufficient to observe, that several skirmishes only drew on the great and decisive victory of Cressy, which every honest Englishman boasts of to this hour. In this memorable battle, Philip was at the head of an hundred thousand men, and Edward only of thirty thousand. The Black Prince, his son, as yet but a youth of fifteen, commanded the first line of the English army; the second was conducted by the Earls of Northampton and Arundel; and the body of reserve was headed by the king in person. He and the Prince of Wales had that morning received the sacrament with great devotion, and his behaviour denoted the calm intrepidity of a man resolved on conquest or death. The army being thus arranged, the king rode from rank to rank, with a cheerful countenance; bade his soldiers remember the honour of their country, while his eloquence animated the whole army to a degree of enthusiastic expectation. To oppose the English, Philip had drawn up his formidable army in three divisions also; the first commanded by John of Luxemburgh, the blind King of Bohemia; the second was led by the Count of Alençon; and Philip, in person, commanded the body of reserve. This was the first battle that the Black Prince had seen; but he now appeared foremost in the very shock, and continued for some time to turn the fortune of the day; but

his courage would have been soon oppressed by numbers, had not the Earl of Northampton come to his relief. The very thickest of the battle was now gathered round him, and the valour of a boy filled even veterans with astonishment; but their surprise at his courage could not but give way to their fears for his person; apprehensive that some misfortune might happen to him in the end, they sent the king word to hasten to the prince's relief. Edward, who had all this time viewed the engagement from a windmill, with great deliberation asked if his son was dead; and, being answered, that he still lived and was giving astonishing instances of valour, Then tell my generals, cried the king, that he shall have no assistance from me: the honour of this day shall be his, and he shall be indebted to his own merit alone for victory. Upon this occasion thirty thousand of the French were killed on the field of battle, and the day after they experienced another defeat. This victory is partly ascribed to four pieces of artillery, which the English first made use of here, and the use of which had been but lately discovered. Edward, after two victories gained in two days, took Calais, of which the English remained in possession two hundred and ten years.

This war, which was at once carried on in three different provinces in France, thinned the inhabitants of the invaded country, and drained that of the invaders. But a destruction still more terrible than that of war, contributed, at this time, to desolate the wretched inhabitants of Europe. A pestilence more terrible than any mentioned in former history, which had already almost dispeopled Asia and Africa, came to settle upon the western world, with increased malignity. The fourth part of the people were cut off by it: in London it raged with such violence, that in one year's space there were buried, in Charterhouse church-yard, above fifty thousand persons. It was in the midst of this terrible scourge of nature, that the ambition of Edward and Philip were contending for new conquests, and adding to the calamities of mankind.



kind. These ravages, however, were silently repaired by commerce and industry; those arts, which were then despised by princes, were laying the seeds of future opulence and increased population.

During the English victories on the continent, the Scots, ever willing to embrace a favourable opportunity of rapine or revenge, invaded England with a numerous army. This unexpected invasion, at such a juncture, alarmed the English, but, however, was not capable of disheartening them. Lionel, Edward's son, who was left guardian of England during his father's absence, was yet but a boy, incapable of commanding an army; but the victories on the continent seemed to inspire even women with ardour. Philippa, Edward's queen, took upon her to repulse the enemy in person: to that end, heading the troops drawn together from all parts, with wonderful expedition, she marched directly against the Scots, and offered them battle. The Scotch king was no less impatient to engage; he imagined a victory would be easy against undisciplined troops, and headed by a woman: but he was miserably deceived; he had not only the mortification to lose the day, but to be made a prisoner by the hands of the English.

These conquests were very soon followed by the battle of Poitiers, which very much resembled that of Cressy: the superior discipline of the English army came off victorious; the flower of the French were cut off, and the king, being wounded in the face, was taken prisoner.

Two kings, prisoners in Edward's court at the same time, were considered as glorious conquests; but all that England gained by them was only glory. Whatever was acquired in France with all the splendors of triumph, was successively, and in a manner silently, lost, without even the mortification of a defeat. The treaties that were made with the captive kings, as may be easily imagined, were highly to the advantage of the conquerors; but those treaties were no longer observed than while the

English had it in their power to enforce obedience. It is true, John held to his engagements as far as was in his power; but by being a prisoner he lost his authority, and his misfortunes rendered him contemptible. Upon his return from captivity, he not only found himself without finances, but at the head of an exhausted state, soldiers without discipline, and peasants without law. Finding his subjects incapable of paying his ransom, he again returned to England, where he died in less than a year.

Charles the Wise, who succeeded him, by a finely-conducted policy, regained whatever was lost by John, his predecessor. Edward the Black Prince, emaciated by a lingering consumption, died at the palace of Westminster, in the forty-sixth year of his age. England began to wear a face of discontent: the public treasure was lavished without advantage to the kingdom; the subjects laboured under numberless grievances; in short, the kingdom seemed now to feel, that a nation might be at once very victorious and very unhappy. But, to complete their miseries, Edward, their king, was now no longer what he was in the earlier parts of his reign: he was sunk into unmanly indolence, and gave himself up to the enjoyment of loose desire, in the arms of a favourite concubine, called Alice Perrers. His parliament made frequent remonstrances against this base oblivion of himself. The parliaments, at this time, were not, as formerly, factions ready to oppress public liberty, but assemblies of wise and good men, sedulous for the common welfare, and of wisdom equal to the rectitude of their intentions: they frequently remonstrated against the king's and his ministers' conduct; they, at one time, had influence sufficient to get his concubine removed, but he soon took her back, for the passions of age are incurable. In her company he forgot all the burdens, duties, and fatigues, of state, and left the kingdom to be plundered by a rapacious ministry. He did not live to feel the consequences of his bad conduct: he died at Shene, in Surrey, deserted

deserted by all, even by those who had formerly grown rich by his bounty.

The domestic government of Edward III. notwithstanding his foibles, was really more admirable than his foreign victories; and England enjoyed, by his prudence and vigour of administration, a longer interval of domestic peace and tranquillity than she had been blest with in any former period, or than she experienced for many years after. During the vigour of his reign, he gained the affections of the great, and curbed their licentiousness: he made them feel his power, without their daring, or even being inclined, to murmur at it; his affable and obliging behaviour, his munificence and generosity, made them submit with pleasure to his dominion; his valour and conduct made them successful in most of their enterprises; and their unquiet spirits, directed against a public enemy, had no leisure to breed disturbances, to which they were naturally so much inclined, and which the form of the government seemed so much to authorize. This was the chief benefit which resulted from Edward's victories and conquests. His foreign wars were, in

other respects, neither founded in justice, nor directed to any very salutary purpose. His attempt against the King of Scotland, a minor, and a brother-in-law, and the revival of his grandfather's claim of superiority over that kingdom, were both unreasonable and ungenerous: and he allowed himself to be too soon seduced by the glaring prospects of French conquest, from the acquisition of a point which was practicable, and which might really, if attained, have been of lasting utility to his country and to his successors. But the glory of a conqueror is so dazzling to the vulgar, and the animosity of nations so extreme, that the fruitless desolation of so fine a part of Europe as France is totally disregarded by us, and never considered as a blemish in the character or conduct of this prince: and indeed, from the unfortunate state of human nature, it will commonly happen that a sovereign of great genius, such as Edward, who usually finds every thing easy in the domestic government, will turn himself towards military enterprises, where alone he meets opposition, and where he has full exercise for his industry and superior valour.

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 77.

**T**HE great qualities in an Indian warrior, are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies at an immense distance by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They can even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise

time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and, marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy



enemy to lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But, if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over, the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out

to mourn their dead brothers or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortune, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already-mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled

at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red-hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they cut circles about his joints, and gashe in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching, them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood that easily take fire, but burn slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with

slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull—they once more unbind the wretch; who, blind, and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or dagger. The body is then put into a kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human; not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance, escape him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for an Indian to behave otherwise



otherwise as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. "I am brave and intrepid, (exclaims the savage in the face of his tormentors;) I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those that have courage:—May my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!"

But neither the intrepidity on one side, nor the inflexibility on the other, are among themselves matter of astonishment: for vengeance, and fortitude in the midst of torment, are duties which they consider as sacred; they are the effects of their earliest education, and depend upon principles instilled into them from their infancy. On all other occasions they are humane and compassionate. Nothing can exceed the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it: among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provisions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? or is his house burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortunes, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens. On the other hand, to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object; he crosses the

steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. No business is transacted, however pressing, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. The body is washed, anointed, and painted. Then the women lament the loss with hideous howlings, intermixed with songs which celebrate the great actions of the deceased and his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village is present at the interment, and the corpse is habited in their most sumptuous ornaments. Close to the body of the deceased are placed his bows and arrows, with whatever he valued most in his life, and a quantity of provision for his subsistence on the journey which he is supposed to take. This solemnity, like every other, is attended with feasting. The funeral being ended, the relations of the deceased confine themselves to their huts for a considerable time to indulge their grief. After an interval of some weeks they visit the grave, repeat their sorrow, new clothe the remains of the body, and act over again the solemnities of the funeral.

Among the various tokens of their regard for their deceased friends, the most remarkable is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls.

The

The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence; and the neighbouring nations are invited to partake of the entertainment. At this time, all who have died since the preceding feast of the kind are taken out of their graves. Even those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and conducted to this rendezvous of the dead, which exhibits a scene of horror beyond the power of description. When the feast is concluded, the bodies are dressed in the finest skins which can be procured, and, after being exposed for some time in this pomp, are again committed to the earth with great solemnity, which is succeeded by funeral games.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskouï, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and, except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be in-

spired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red-hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from this bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

Though the women generally bear the laborious part of domestic economy, their condition is far from being so slavish as it appears. On the contrary, the greatest respect is paid by the men to the female sex. The women even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the state. Polygamy is practised by some nations, but is not general. In most, they content themselves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted in case of adultery. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies; the principal of which is, the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn. The women, though before-incontinent, are remarkable for chastity after marriage.

Liberty, in its full extent, being the darling passion of the Indians, their education is directed in such a manner as to cherish this disposition to the utmost. Hence children are never upon any account chastised with blows, and they are seldom even reprimanded. Reason, they say, will guide their children when they come



to the use of it, and before that time their faults cannot be very great: but blows might damp their free and martial spirit, by the habit of a slavish motive to action. When grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or subordination; even strong persuasion is industriously withheld by those who have influence among them.—No man is held in great esteem, unless he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with a scalp of one of his enemies.

Controversies among the Indians are few, and quickly decided. When any criminal matter is so flagrant as to become a national concern, it is brought under the jurisdiction of the great council; but in ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder be committed, the family which has lost a relation prepares to retaliate on that of the offender. They often kill the murderer; and, when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and to have the same right to vengeance, as the other party. In general, however, the offender absents himself; the friends send compliments of condolence to those of the person that has been murdered. The head of the family at length appears with a number of presents, the delivery of which he accompanies with a formal speech. The whole ends, as usual, in mutual feasting, songs, and dances. If the murder is committed by one of the same family or cabin, that cabin has the full right of judgment within itself, either to punish the guilty with death, or to pardon him, or to oblige him to give some recompence to the wife or children of the slain. Instances of such a crime, however, very seldom happen; for their attachment to those of the same family is remarkably strong, and is said to produce such friendships as may vie with the most celebrated in fabulous antiquity.

Such, in general, are the manners and customs of the Indian nations; but every tribe has something peculiar to itself. Among the Hurons and

Natches, the dignity of the chief is hereditary, and the right of succession in the female line. When this happens to be extinct, the most respectable matron of the tribe makes choice of whom she pleases to succeed.

The Cherokees are governed by several sachems or chiefs, elected by the different villages; as are also the Creeks and Chactaws. The two latter punish adultery in a woman by cutting off her hair, which they will not suffer to grow till the corn is ripe the next season; but the Illinois, for the same crime, cut off the women's noses and ears.

The Indians on the lakes are formed into a sort of empire; and the emperor is elected from the eldest tribe, which is that of the Ottowawaws. He has the greatest authority of any chief that has appeared on the continent since our acquaintance with it. A few years ago, the person who held this rank formed a design of uniting all the Indian nations under his sovereignty; but he miscarried in the attempt.

In general, the American Indians live to a great age, although it is not possible to know from themselves the exact number of their years. It was asked of an Indian, who appeared to be extremely old, what age he was of? I am above twenty, was his reply. Upon putting the question in a different form, by reminding him of certain circumstances in former times, My machu, said he, spoke to me when I was young of the Incas; and he had seen these princes. According to this reply, there must have elapsed, from the date of his machu's (his grandfather's) remembrance to that time, a period of at least two hundred and thirty-two years. The man who made this reply appeared to be one hundred and twenty years of age: for, besides the whiteness of his hair and beard, his body was almost bent to the ground; without, however, shewing any other marks of debility or suffering. This happened in 1764. This longevity, attended in general with uninterrupted health, is probably the consequence in part of their vacancy from all serious thought and

and employment, joined also with the robust texture and conformation of their bodily organs. If the Indians did not destroy one another in their almost perpetual wars, and if their habits of intoxication were not so universal and incurable, they would be, of all the races of men who inhabit the globe, the most likely to prolong, not only the bounds, but the enjoyments, of animal life to their utmost duration.

Let us now attend to other pictures which have been given of the aboriginal inhabitants of the New World. The vices and defects of the American Indians have by several writers been most unaccountably aggravated, and every virtue and good quality denied them. Their cruelties have been already described and accounted for. The following anecdote of an Algonquin woman we find adduced as a remarkable proof of their innate thirst of blood. That nation being at war with the Iroquois, she happened to be made prisoner, and was carried to one of the villages belonging to them. Here she was stripped naked, and her hands and feet bound with ropes in one of their cabins. In this condition she remained ten days, the savages sleeping round her every night. The eleventh night, while they were asleep, she found means to disengage one of her hands, with which she immediately freed herself from the ropes, and went to the door. Though she had now an opportunity of escaping unperceived, her revengeful temper could not let slip so favourable an opportunity of killing one of her enemies. The attempt was manifestly at the hazard of her own life; yet, snatching up a hatchet, she killed the savage that lay next her; and, springing out of the cabin, concealed herself in a hollow tree which she had observed the day before. The groans of the dying person soon alarmed the other savages, and the young ones immediately set out in pursuit of her.—Perceiving from her tree, that they all directed their course one way, and that no savage was near her, she left her sanctuary, and, flying by an opposite direction, ran into a forest without being perceived. The

second day after this happened, her footsteps were discovered, and they pursued her with such expedition, that the third day she discovered her enemies at her heels. Upon this she threw herself into a pond of water; and, diving among some weeds and bulrushes, she could just breathe above water without being perceived. Her pursuers, after making the most diligent search, were forced to return.—For thirty-five days this woman held on her course through woods and deserts, without any other sustenance than roots and wild berries. When she came to the river St. Lawrence, she made with her own hands a kind of a wicker raft, on which she crossed it. As she went by the French fort Trois Rivières, without well knowing where she was, she perceived a canoe full of savages; and, fearing they might be Iroquois, ran again into the woods, where she remained till sun-set.—Continuing her course, soon after she saw Trois Rivières; and was then discovered by a party whom she knew to be Hurons, a nation in alliance with the Algonquins. She then squatted down behind a bush, calling out to them that she was not in a condition to be seen, because she was naked. They immediately threw her a blanket, and then conducted her to the fort, where she recounted her story.

Personal courage has been denied them. In proof of their pusillanimity, the following incidents are quoted from Charlevoix by Lord Kames, in his *Sketches of the History of Man*. “The fort de Vercheres in Canada, belonging to the French, was, in the year 1690, attacked by some Iroquois. They approached silently, preparing to scale the pallisade, when some musket-shot made them retire. Advancing a second time, they were again repulsed, wondering that they could discover none but a woman, who was seen every where. This was Madame de Vercheres, who appeared as resolute as if supported by a numerous garrison. The hopes of storming a place without men to defend it occasioned reiterated attacks. After two days siege, they retired, fearing to be intercepted in



in their retreat. Two years after, a party of the same nation appeared before the fort so unexpectedly, that a girl of fourteen, daughter of the proprietor, had but just time to shut the gate. With the young woman there was not a soul but one raw soldier. She shewed herself with her assistant, sometimes in one place and sometimes in another; changing her dress frequently, in order to give some appearance of a garrison; and always fired opportunely. The faint-hearted Iroquois decamped without success."

There is no instance, it is said, either of a single Indian facing an individual of any other nation in fair and open combat, or of their jointly venturing to try the fate of battle with an equal number of any foes. Even with the greatest superiority of numbers, they dare not meet an open attack. Yet, notwithstanding this want of courage, they are still formidable; nay, it has been known, that a small party of them has routed a much superior body of regular troops: but this can only happen when they have surprised them in the fastnesses of their forests, where the covert of the wood may conceal them until they take their aim with the utmost certainty. After one such discharge they immediately retreat, without leaving the smallest trace of their route. It may easily be supposed, that an onset of this kind must produce confusion even among the steadiest troops, when they can neither know the number of their enemies, nor perceive the place where they lie in ambush.

Perfidy combined with cruelty has been also made a part of their character. Don Ulloa relates, That the Indians of the country called Natches, in Louisiana, laid a plot of massacring in one night every individual belonging to the French colony established there. This plot they actually executed, notwithstanding the seeming good understanding that subsisted between them and their European neighbours. Such was the secrecy which they observed, that no person had the least suspicion of their design until the blow was struck. One Frenchman alone escaped, by favour

of the darkness, to relate the disaster of his countrymen. The compassion of a female Indian contributed also in some measure to his exemption from the general massacre. The tribe of Natches had invited the Indians of other countries, even to a considerable distance, to join in the same conspiracy. The day, or rather the night, was fixed, on which they were to make an united attack on the French colonists. It was intimated by sending a parcel of rods, more or less numerous according to the local distance of each tribe, with an injunction to abstract one rod daily; the day on which the last fell to be taken away being that fixed for the execution of their plan. The women were partners of the bloody secret. The parcels of rods being thus distributed, that belonging to the tribe of Natches happened to remain in the custody of a female. This woman, either moved by her own feelings of compassion, or by the commiseration expressed by her female acquaintances in the view of the proposed scene of bloodshed, abstracted one day three or four of the rods, and thus anticipated the term of her tribe's proceeding to the execution of the general conspiracy. The consequence of this was, that the Natches were the only actors in this carnage; their distant associates having still several rods remaining at the time when the former made the attack. An opportunity was thereby given to the colonists in those quarters to take measures for their defence, and for preventing a more extensive execution of the design.

It was by conspiracies similar to this that the Indians of the province of Macas, in the kingdom of Quito, destroyed the opulent city of Logrogno, the colony of Guambaya, and its capital Sevilla del Oro; and that so completely, that it is no longer known in what place these settlements existed, or where that abundance of gold was found from which the last-mentioned city took the addition to its name. Like ravages have been committed upon l'Imperiale in Chili, the colonies of the Missions of Chuncas, those of Darien in Terra Firma, and many other places, which have af-

forded scenes of this barbarous ferocity. These conspiracies are always carried on in the same manner. The secret is inviolably kept, the actors assemble at the precise hour appointed, and every individual is animated with the same sanguinary purposes. The males that fall into their hands are put to death with every shocking circumstance that can be suggested by a cool and determined cruelty. The females are carried off, and preserved as monuments of their victory, to be employed as their occasions require.

Nor can this odious cruelty and treachery, it is said, be justly ascribed to their subjection to a foreign yoke, seeing the same character belongs equally to all the original inhabitants of this vast continent, even those who have preserved their independence most completely. Certain it is, continues he, that these people, with the most limited capacities for every thing else, display an astonishing degree of penetration and subtlety with respect to every object that involves treachery, bloodshed, and rapine. As to these, they seem to have been all educated at one school; and a secret, referring to any such plan, no consideration on earth can extort from them.

Their understandings also have been represented as not less contemptible than their manners are gross and brutal. Many nations are neither capable of forming an arrangement for futurity; nor did their sollicitude or foresight extend so far. They set no value upon those things of which they were not in some immediate want. In the evening, when a Carib is going to rest, no consideration will tempt him to sell his hammock; but in the morning he will part with it for the slightest trifle. At the close of winter, a North American, mindful of what he has suffered from the cold, sets himself with vigour to prepare materials for erecting a comfortable hut to protect him against the inclemency of the succeeding season: but as soon as the weather becomes mild, he abandons his work, and never thinks of it more till the return of the cold compels him to resume it.—In short, to

be free from labour seems to be the utmost wish of an American. They will continue whole days stretched in their hammocks, or seated on the earth, without changing their posture, raising their eyes, or uttering a single word. They cannot compute the succession of days nor of weeks. The different aspects of the moon alone engage their attention as a measure of time. Of the year they have no other conception than what is suggested to them by the alternate heat of summer and cold of winter; nor have they the least idea of applying to this period the obvious computation of the months which it contains. When it is asked of any old man in Peru, even the most civilized, what age he is of? the only answer he can give is the number of caciques he has seen. It often happens, too, that they only recollect the most distant of these princes in whose time certain circumstances had happened peculiarly memorable, while of those that lived in a more recent period they have lost all remembrance.

The same gross stupidity is alleged to be observable in those Indians who have retained their original liberty. They are never known to fix the dates of any events in their minds, or to trace the succession of circumstances that have arisen from such events. Their imagination takes in only the present, and in that only what intimately concerns themselves. Nor can discipline or instruction overcome this natural defect of apprehension. In fact, the subjected Indians in Peru, who have a continual intercourse with the Spaniards, who are furnished with curates perpetually occupied in giving them lessons of religion and morality, and who mix with all ranks of the civilized society established among them, are almost as stupid and barbarous as their countrymen who have had no such advantages. The Peruvians, while they lived under the government of their Incas, preserved the records of certain remarkable events. They had also a kind of regular government, described by the historians of the conquest of Peru. This government originated entirely from the attention  
and



and abilities of their princes, and from the regulations enacted by them for directing the conduct of their subjects. This ancient degree of civilization among them gives ground to presume, that their legislators sprung from some race more enlightened than the other tribes of Indians; a race of which no individual seems to remain in the present times.

Vanity and conceit are said to be blended with their ignorance and treachery. Notwithstanding all they suffer from Europeans, they still, it is said, consider themselves as a race of men far superior to their conquerors. This proud belief, arising from their perverted ideas of excellence, is universal over the whole known continent of America. They do not think it possible that any people can be so intelligent as themselves. When they are detected in any of their plots, it is their common observation, that the Spaniards, or Viracochas, want to be as knowing as they are. Those of Louisiana, and the countries adjacent, are equally vain of their superior understanding, confounding that quality with the cunning which they themselves constantly practise. The whole object of their transactions is to over-reach those with whom they deal. Yet though faithless themselves, they never forgive the breach of promise on the part of others. While the Europeans seek their amity by presents, they give themselves no concern to secure a reciprocal friendship. Hence, probably, arises their idea, that they must be a superior race of men, in ability and intelligence, to those who are at such pains to court their alliance and avert their enmity.

Their natural eloquence has also been decried. The free tribes of savages who enter into conventions with the Europeans, it is observed, are accustomed to make long, pompous, and, according to their own notions, sublime, harangues, but without any method or connection. The whole is a collection of disjointed metaphors and comparisons. The light, heat, and course, of the sun, form the principal topic of their discourse; and these unintelligible rea-

sonings are always accompanied with violent and ridiculous gestures. Numberless repetitions prolong the oration, which, if not interrupted, would last whole days: at the same time, they meditate very accurately beforehand, in order to avoid mentioning any thing but what they are desirous to obtain. This pompous faculty of making speeches is also one of the grounds on which they conceive themselves to be superior to the nations of Europe: they imagine that it is their eloquence that procures them the favours they ask. The subjected Indians converse precisely in the same style. Prolix and tedious, they never know when to stop; so that, excepting by the difference in language, it would be impossible, in this respect, to distinguish a civilized Peruvian from an inhabitant of the most savage districts to the northward.

But such partial and detached views as the above, were they even free from misrepresentation, are not the just ground upon which to form an estimate of their character. Their qualities, good and bad (for they certainly possess both), their way of life, the state of society among them, with all the circumstances of their condition, ought to be considered in connection, and in regard to their mutual influence. Such a view has been given in the preceding part of this article: from which, it is hoped, their real character may be easily deduced.

Many of the disagreeable traits exhibited in the anecdotes just quoted, are indeed extracted from Don Ulloa: an author of credit and reputation; but a Spaniard, and evidently biased in some degree by a desire to palliate the enormities of his countrymen in that quarter of the globe. And with regard to the worst and least equivocal parts of the American character, cruelty and revenge, it may be fairly questioned, whether the instances of these, either in respect of their cause or their atrocity, be at all comparable to those exhibited in European history, and staining the annals of Christendom:—to those, for instance, of the Spaniards themselves, at their first discovery of America; to those indicated by the engines found on-board  
their

their mighty armada; to those which, in cold blood, were perpetrated by the Dutch at Amboyna; to the dragoonings of the French; to their religious massacres; or even to the tender mercies of the Inquisition!

Still harsher, however, are the descriptions given by Buffon and de Paw of the natives of this whole continent, in which the most mortifying degeneracy of the human race, as well as of all the inferior animals, is asserted to be conspicuous. Against those philosophers, or rather theorists, the Americans have found an able advocate in the Abbé Clavigero; an historian whose situation and long residence in America afforded him the best means of information, and who, though himself a subject of Spain, appears superior to prejudice, and disdains in his description the glosses of policy.

Concerning the stature of the Americans, M. de Paw says, in general, that, although it is not equal to the

stature of the Castilians, there is but little difference between them. But the Abbé Clavigero evinces, that the Indians who inhabit those countries lying between nine and forty degrees of north latitude, which are the limits of the discoveries of the Spaniards, are more than five Parisian feet in height, and that those who do not reach that stature are as few in number amongst the Indians as they are amongst the Spaniards. It is besides certain, that many of those nations, as the Apaches, the Illiaques, the Pimefe, and Cochimies, are at least as tall as the tallest Europeans; and that, in all the vast extent of the New World, no race of people has been found, except the Esquimaux, so diminutive in stature as the Laplanders, the Samojeds, and Tartars, in the north of the Old Continent. In this respect, therefore, the inhabitants of the two continents are upon an equality.

[To be continued.]

#### SCRIPTURE PREFIGURATION OF THE MILLENIUM.

**T**HE Millenium signifies "a thousand years;" and is generally employed to denote the thousand years, during which, according to an ancient tradition in the church, grounded on some doubtful texts in the Apocalypse and other scriptures, our blessed Saviour shall reign with the faithful upon earth after the first resurrection, before the final completion of beatitude.

Though there has been no age of the church in which the millenium was not admitted by individual divines of the first eminence, it is yet evident from the writings of Eusebius, Irenæus, Origen, and others, among the ancients, as well as from the histories of Dupin, Mosheim, and all the moderns, that it was never adopted by the whole church, or made an article of the established creed in any nation. About the middle of the fourth century the millenians held the following tenets:

1st, That the city of Jerusalem should be rebuilt, and that the land of Judea should be the habitation of

those who were to reign on earth 1000 years.

2dly, That the first resurrection was not to be confined to the martyrs; but that after the fall of Antichrist all the just were to rise, and all that were on the earth were to continue for that space of time.

3dly, That Christ shall then come down from heaven, and be seen on earth, and reign there with his servants.

4thly, That the saints during this period shall enjoy all the delights of a terrestrial paradise.

These opinions were founded upon several passages of scripture, which the millenarians among the fathers understood in no other than a literal sense, but which the moderns, who hold that opinion, consider as partly literal, and partly metaphorical. Of these passages, that upon which the greatest stress has been laid, we believe to be the following:—"And I saw an angel come down from heaven, having the key of the bottomless pit, and a great chain in his hand. And he

laid



laid hold on the dragon, that old serpent, which is the devil and Satan, and bound him a *thousand years*, and cast him into the bottomless pit, and shut him up, and set a seal upon him, that he should deceive the nations no more till *the thousand years* should be fulfilled; and after that he must be loosed a little season. And I saw thrones, and they sat upon them, and judgment was given unto them: and I saw the souls of them that were beheaded for the witness of Jesus, and for the word of God, and which had not worshipped the beast, neither his image, neither had received his mark upon their foreheads, or in their hands; and they lived and reigned with Christ a *thousand years*. But the rest of the dead lived not again till *the thousand years were finished*. This is the first resurrection. Rev. xx. 1-6." This passage all the ancient millenarians took in a sense grossly literal; and taught, that during the millenium the saints on earth were to enjoy every bodily delight. The moderns, on the other hand, consider the power and pleasure of this kingdom as wholly spiritual; and they represent them as not to commence till after the conflagration of the present earth. But that this last supposition is a mistake, the very next verse except one assures us: for we are there told, that, "when the thousand years are expired, Satan shall be loosed out of his prison, and shall go out to deceive the nations which are in the four quarters of *the earth*;" and we have no reason to believe that he will have such power or such liberty in "the new heavens and the *new earth* wherein dwelleth righteousness."

For this and other reasons, the most judicious contend, that the prophecies of the millenium point not to a resurrection of martyrs and other just men to reign with Christ a thousand years in a visible kingdom upon earth, but to that state of the Christian church, which, for a thousand years before the general judgment, will be so pure and so widely extended, that, when compared with the state of the world in the ages preceding, it may, in the language of scripture, be called *a resurrection from the dead*. In sup-

port of this interpretation they quote two passages from St. Paul, in which a conversion from Paganism to Christianity, and a reformation of life, is called a resurrection from the dead:—"Neither yield ye your members as instruments of righteousness unto sin; but yield yourselves unto God as those that are *alive from the dead*. Rom. vi. 13." And again, "Wherefore he faith, Awake thou that sleepest, and *arise from the dead*, and Christ shall give thee light. Eph. v. 14." It is likewise to be observed, that in all the descriptions of the resurrection and future judgment which are given us at such length in the gospels and epistles, there is no mention made of a *first* and *second* resurrection at the distance of a thousand years from each other. There is indeed an order in the resurrection: for we are told, 1 Chron. xv. 23. that "every man shall rise in his own order; Christ the first-fruits, afterwards they that are Christ's at his coming, &c." But, were the millenarian hypothesis well founded, the words should rather have run thus: "Christ the first-fruits, then the martyrs at his coming, and a thousand years afterwards the residue of mankind. Then cometh the end, &c."

These arguments strongly incline us to believe, that by the reign of Christ and the saints for a thousand years upon earth, nothing more is meant, than that before the general judgment the Jews shall be converted, genuine Christianity be diffused thro' all nations, and mankind enjoy that peace and happiness which the faith and precepts of the gospel are calculated to confer on all by whom they are sincerely embraced.

Our Saviour's own account of his religion is, that from a small beginning it will increase to the full harvest. The millenium therefore is to be considered as the full effect of the Christian principles in the hearts of men, and over the whole world; and the divines who have treated of this subject endeavour to prove, that this is to be expected from the facts which have already existed, and from the importance of the Christian doctrine.

1. The gradual progress of Christianity is no objection to this fact. This

This is similar to the progress and advancement from less to greater perfection in every thing which possesses vegetable or animal life. The same thing is observed in the arts, in civilization, in societies, and in individuals—and why should it not be admitted to have place in religion? There is indeed a general principle on which a gradual progression, both in the natural and moral world, is founded. The Almighty never employs supernatural means where the thing can be accomplished by those which are natural. This idea is of the most general extent through the whole of the present system of nature. The possibility of another plan could easily be admitted; but in this case there would be a total alteration of every part of the works of God or of man that we are acquainted with. In the same manner, if the religion of Christ had been irresistible, it would have totally altered its natural consequences. It was necessary, therefore, from the present condition of man, as an active, intelligent, and accountable, being, that means should be employed; and, wherever means are employed, the effects produced must be gradual, and not instantaneous.

2. Though the progress of a divine revelation be gradual, yet it is to be expected, from the wisdom and compassion of God, that it will still be advancing in the hearts of men, and over the world. In the first age of the church, the word of God, supported by miracles, and by the animated zeal of men, who spake what they saw and heard, grew and prevailed. In this case supernatural means were necessary, because the prejudices of the world could not be subdued without them. It was the first watering of a plant which you afterwards leave to the dew of heaven. Miracles at the same time were employed only as the means of conviction; and they were not continued, because in this case they would have become a constant and irresistible principle, incompatible with the condition of man as a reasonable agent. After this power was withdrawn, there were many ages of ignorance and superstition in the Christian church. But what is neces-

sary to be established on this subject is, not that the progress of Christianity has never been interrupted, but that on the whole it has been advancing. The effects of this religion on mankind, in proportion as it was received, were immediate and visible: it destroyed the gross superstition of idol-worship: it abolished the practice, which was general in the heathen world, of reducing to the lowest state of servitude the greatest part of our brethren: it softened the horrors of war, even when the vices of mankind made defence necessary: it entered into social and private life; and taught men benevolence, humanity, and mercy. It is in these blessed effects that we can observe the progress of Christianity even to this day. Superstition and idolatry were soon engrafted on the stem which our Saviour planted in the world; but the simplicity of the gospel has been gradually undermining the fabric of superstition; and the men who are most nearly interested in the deceit, are now almost ashamed to shew their faces in the cause. The practice of slavery has, generally speaking, been extinguished in the Christian world; yet the remains of it have been a disgrace to the Christian name, and the professors of that religion have now begun to see their inconsistency. War is carried on with less animosity, and with less barbarity, even among the Indians; and men begin to cultivate more generally, and to delight in, the arts of peace. The increasing spirit of charity and benevolence, of which it were easy to give unexampled instances in the present age, is a decided proof of the increasing influence of Christianity. At the same time, if, instead of these general principles, we were to descend to private examples of infidelity or wickedness, it would be easy to bring proofs in support of an opposite opinion: but the reasoning would by no means be equally conclusive; for, if the general principles by which society is regulated be more liberal and merciful, it is evident that there is more goodness in a greater number of the human race. Society is nothing more than a collection of individuals; and the general



ral tone, especially when it is on the side of virtue, which almost in every instance opposes the designs of leading and interested men, is a certain evidence of the private spirit. To shew that this reformation is connected with Christianity, it is unnecessary to state any comparison between the influence of heathen and the influence of Christian principles; between civilization as depending on the powers of the human understanding, and on the efficacy of the word of God. The whole of this controversy may be reduced to one obvious fact, viz. that, as any nation has come nearer to the simplicity of the gospel in the standard of its worship, it has been more possessed of those national virtues which we have ascribed to the influence of Christianity. This fact alone is worth a thousand volumes of speculation on the subject.

3. A revelation sanctioned by God, for a benevolent purpose, will be expected to produce effects corresponding to the wisdom which gave it, and to the purpose for which it is employed. It may be gradual; but it will be increasing, and it must increase, to the full harvest. He that has begun the good work will also finish it. It is reasonable to expect this illustrious success of the gospel, both from the nature of the thing, and from the prophecies contained in the sacred scriptures. The precepts of the gospel, in their genuine sense, are admirably calculated for the peace and welfare both of individuals and society. The greatest liberality of mind, the greatest generosity of temper, the most unbounded love, and the greatest indifference to the accumulation of this world's property, if they glowed from breast to breast, and operated with equal force on all men, would be productive of equal good and happiness to all. We are scarcely able to perceive the force of this at first view, because the deceit and imposition which yet exist in the world, prevent the operation of the best principles even in the best hearts. But, in proportion to the improvement of mankind, what is their real interest, and what are the real objects of happiness, will gradually unfold.

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The contempt of vice will be greater in proportion to the scarcity of it: for one villain gives countenance and support to another, just as iron sharpeneth iron. This opens to our view another fact connected with the practice of Christianity, namely, that the nearer it arrives to its perfect state, it will be the more rapid in its progress. The beauty of holiness will be more visible; and, in the strong language of the prophet, "the earth shall bring forth in one day, and a nation shall be born at once. Is. lxvi. 8." This future perfection of the gospel is consistent with its nature and importance. —We can scarcely believe that means so admirably adapted to the reformation of mankind should be without their effect; and, if the most difficult part be already accomplished, we have no reason to apprehend that the scheme will not be completed. This fact is also clearly the subject of ancient prophecy. For "thus saith the Lord, (ver. 12, 23.) I will extend peace to her like a river, and the glory of the Gentiles like a flowing stream. And it shall come to pass, from one sabbath to another, and from one new moon to another, shall all flesh come to worship before me, saith the Lord." —"Violence shall be no more heard in thy land, wasting nor destruction within thy border; but thou shalt call thy walls salvation, and thy gates praise." Is. lx. 18.

Without entering more minutely into the prophecy already quoted from chap. xx. of the book of the Revelation, it is sufficient to observe, that Dr. Whitby, in his treatise on the millenium at the end of his commentary, proves in the clearest manner, from the spirit of the passage and the similarity of the expressions with those of other prophets, that it refers to a state of the church for a thousand years, which shall be like life from the dead. The commencement of this period is connected with two events; the fall of antichrist, and the conversion of the Jews. The latter of these events must be considered as a key to all the prophecies concerning the millenium. As the Jews were the ancient people of God, and as their conversion is to be the previous

step

step to the general knowledge of Christianity, the prophecies of the millenium have a chief relation to this important event. We have already observed, that God never interposes with miraculous power to produce what can be effected by natural means; and, from what we know of human nature, we cannot but perceive that the conversion of the Jews will powerfully operate to the general conversion of mankind. Freed from those prejudices which now make them the objects of hatred in all nations, and fired with that zeal by which new converts are always actuated, they will preach the gospel with a fervour of which we, who have long been blessed with its rays, can hardly form a conception; and, by their present dispersion over the whole earth, they will be enabled to adapt their instructions to every individual of the human race in the language of his fathers. Indeed, if they are not at some future period to be employed by Providence for this purpose, it is difficult, if not impossible, to give any reason for their dispersed state and political existence.

Just now it must be confessed that they are the most implacable enemies of the Christian name; but their conversion is not on that account more unlikely or improbable than were events which have taken place of nearly equal importance a very few years ago. On the whole, the perfection of Christianity is a doctrine of reasonable expectation to the church; and it is impossible for the advocates for natural religion to deny, that unlimited obedience to its precepts is consistent with the purest state of liberty and of happiness. This is the only millenium which the prophets and apostles, as we understand them, promise to the saints; but, as men figuring in the very first ranks of learning have thought otherwise, we would not be too confident that our interpretation is just.—Such of our readers as wish for further information, will find it in the works of Mr. Mede, Bishop Newton, Dr. Whitby, and Dr. Gill; and to those masterly writers we refer them for that satisfaction which in the narrow limits of a Magazine cannot be given.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

STORY OF MELISSA, WRITTEN BY HERSELF.

**I** WAS born to a large fortune, and bred to the knowledge of those arts which are supposed to accomplish the mind or adorn the person of a woman. To these attainments, which custom and education almost forced upon me, I added some voluntary acquisitions by the use of books, and the conversation of that species of men whom the ladies generally mention with horror and aversion by the name of Scholars, but whom I have found, for the most part, a harmless and inoffensive order of beings, not so much wiser than ourselves, but that they may receive as well as communicate knowledge, and more inclined to degrade their own character by cowardly submission, than to overbear or oppress us with their learning or their wit.

From these men, however, if they are by kind treatment encouraged to

talk, something may be gained, which, embellished with elegance and softened by modesty, will always add dignity and value to female conversation; and from my acquaintance with the bookish part of the world I derived many principles of judgment and maxims of knowledge, by which I was enabled to excel all my competitors, and draw upon myself the general regard in every place of concourse or pleasure. My opinion was the great rule of approbation, my remarks were remembered by those who desired the second degree of fame, my mien was studied, my dress was imitated, my letters were handed from one family to another, and read by those who copied them as sent to themselves; my visits were solicited as honours, and multitudes boasted of an intimacy with Melissa, who had only seen me by accident, and whose familiarity



familiarity had never proceeded beyond the exchange of a compliment or return of a curtsy.

I shall make no scruple of confessing that I was pleased with this universal veneration, because I always considered it as paid to my intrinsic qualities and inseparable merit, and very easily persuaded myself that fortune had no part in my superiority. When I looked upon my glass, I saw youth and beauty, and health that might give me reason to hope their continuance: when I examined my mind, I found some strength of judgment, and fertility of fancy; and was told that every action was grace, and that every accent was persuasion.

In this manner my life passed like a continual triumph, amidst acclamations, and envy, and courtship, and caresses: to please Melissa was the general ambition, and every stratagem of artful flattery was practised upon me. To be flattered is grateful, even when we know that our praises are not believed by those who pronounce them; for they prove, at least, our general power, and shew that our favour is valued, since it is purchased by the meanness of falsehood. But, perhaps, the flatterer is not often detected, for an honest mind is not apt to suspect, and no one exerts the powers of discernment with much vigour when self-love favours the deceit.

The number of adorers, and the perpetual distraction of my thoughts by new schemes of pleasure, prevented me from listening to any of those who crowd in multitudes to give girls advice, and kept me unmarried and unengaged to my twenty-seventh year; when, while I was towering in all the pride of uncontested excellency, with a face yet little impaired, and a mind hourly improving, the failure of a fund, in which my money was placed, reduced me to a frugal competency, which allowed little beyond neatness and independence.

I bore the diminution of my riches without any outrages of sorrow, or pusillanimity of dejection. Indeed I did not know how much I had lost, for, having always heard and thought more of my wit and beauty than of

my fortune, it did not suddenly enter my imagination, that Melissa could sink beneath her established rank, while her form and her mind continued the same; that she should cease to raise admiration but by ceasing to deserve it, or feel any stroke but from the hand of time.

It was in my power to have concealed the loss, and to have married, by continuing the same appearance, with all the credit of my original fortune; but I was not so far sunk in my own esteem, as to submit to the baseness of fraud, or to desire any other recommendation than sense and virtue. I therefore dismissed my equipage, sold those ornaments which were become unsuitable to my new condition, and appeared among those with whom I used to converse with less glitter, but with equal spirit.

I found myself received at every visit with an appearance of sorrow beyond what is naturally felt for calamities in which we have no part, and was entertained with condolence and consolation so long continued and so frequently repeated, that my friends plainly consulted rather their own gratification than my relief. Some from that time refused my acquaintance, and forbore, without any provocation, to repay my visits; some visited me, but after a longer interval than usual, and every return was still with more delay; nor did any of my female acquaintances fail to introduce the mention of my misfortunes, to compare my present and former condition, to tell me how much it must trouble me to want the splendor which I became so well, to look at pleasures which I had formerly enjoyed, and to sink to a level with those by whom I had always been considered as moving in a higher sphere, and been approached with reverence and submission, which, as they insinuated, I was no longer to expect.

Observations like these are commonly made only as covert insults, and serve to give vent to the flatulence of pride; but they are now and then imprudently uttered by honesty and benevolence, and inflict pain where kindness is intended; I will, therefore, so far maintain my antiquated

claim,

claim to politeness, as that I will venture to advance this rule, that no one ought to remind another of any misfortune of which the sufferer does not complain, and which there are no means proposed of alleviating. No one has a right to excite thoughts which necessarily give pain whenever they return, which perhaps might not revive but by absurd and unseasonable compassion.

My endless train of lovers immediately withdrew without raising any emotions. The greater part had indeed always professed to court, as it is termed, upon the square, had enquired my fortune, and offered settlements; and these had undoubtedly a right to retire without censure, since they had openly treated for money, as necessary to their happiness; and who can tell how little they wanted of any other portion; I have always thought the clamours of women unreasonable, when they find that they who followed them upon the supposition of a greater fortune reject them when they are discovered to have less. I have never known any lady, who did not think wealth a title to some stipulations in her favour; and surely what is claimed by the possession of money is justly forfeited by its loss. She that has once demanded a settlement has allowed the importance of fortune; and, when she cannot shew pecuniary merit, why should she think her cheapener obliged to purchase?

My lovers were not all contented with silent desertion. Some of them revenged the neglect which they had borne by wanton and superfluous insults, and endeavoured to mortify me by paying in my presence those civilities to other ladies, which were once devoted only to me. But, as it has been my rule to treat men according to the rank of their intellect, I had never suffered any one to waste his life in suspense who could have employed it to better purpose; and therefore I had no enemies but coxcombs, whose resentment and respect were equally below my consideration.

The only pain which I felt from degradation, was the loss of that influence which I had always exerted on the side of virtue, in the defence of innocence, and the assertion of truth. I now found my opinions slighted, my sentiments criticised, and my arguments opposed by those that used to listen to me without reply, and struggle to be first in expressing their conviction. The female disputants have wholly thrown off my authority; and, if I endeavour to enforce my reasons by an appeal to the scholars who happen to be present, the wretches are certain to pay their court by sacrificing me and my system to a finer gown; and I am every hour insulted with contradiction from cowards, who could never find till lately that Melissa was liable to error.

There are two persons only whom I cannot charge with having changed their conduct with my change of fortune. One is an old curate, that has passed his life in the duties of his profession with great reputation for his knowledge and piety; the other is a lieutenant of dragoons. The parson made no difficulty in the height of my elevation to check me when I was pert, and inform me when I blundered; and, if there be any alteration, he is now more timorous, lest his freedom should be thought rudeness. The soldier never paid me any particular addresses, but very rigidly observed all the rules of politeness, which he is now so far from relaxing, that, whenever he serves the tea, he obstinately carries me the first dish, in defiance of the frowns and whispers of the whole table.

This is to see the world. It is impossible for those that have only known affluence and prosperity, to judge rightly of themselves or others. The rich and the powerful live in a perpetual masquerade, in which all about them wear borrowed characters; and we only discover in what estimation we are held, when we can no longer give hopes or fears.



## THE DIVERSIONS OF THE ENGLISH.

Supposed to be written by the late PRINCE LEE BOO, and sent to his Father, the King of the Pelew Islands.

WHAT I have said to you, beloved fire, on the politics of this people, has been short and superficial; because you have taught me to speak with diffidence and reserve on matters of this high nature; and because the laws, by which this country is governed, are too numerous and profound to be hastily learned. Their customs and manners also require a longer residence than I have yet made among them, to be clearly comprehended, and fairly judged. Our prejudices do not suffer us to reflect, that these ought always to be considered with a reference to the climate, wants, and civil condition, of the country. As experience ripens my judgment, expect from me better remarks on all these particulars: at present, accept, with your usual indulgence such observations as have occurred to me; they will at least serve to mark the stages of my improvement, as you compare those of different dates together.

I shall first of all present you with a sketch of their amusements, in which you told me, in our last conversation, before I mounted into the large floating-castle, I should see a vast deal of the temper and natural character of the people I was about to visit. You will scarcely credit it, but I assure you, I make continual mistakes between their amusements and their business; and sometimes imagine they are pursuing some sport, when, in reality, they are occupied about objects of a serious and solemn nature: for, notwithstanding this people are capable of such stupendous efforts of art and science, they have a way of mixing a littleness of character with their grandeur of spirit, qualities that are held incompatible with us; and thus is produced a sort of farcical and ridiculous disproportion. This equivocal appearance of many of their proceedings will, doubtless, fill my let-

ters with numerous errors; but I shall take care to rectify them as I advance in my acquaintance with the subject, so as in the end to communicate some advantage to yourself, and consequently to my dear country, from these opportunities which I owe to your indulgence.

To begin, then, you must know that the other day I was carried to a very large room, in which they told me was assembled the great council of the nation: but I presently saw through it, and perceived clearly that it was a kind of game, in imitation of a senate; and, indeed, it was performed so well, that had it not been for a great deal of laughing, coughing, scraping, and hallooing, it might have been imposed upon me for a real assembly of the great men of the nation, met to debate on its most important interests; for here and there, there was a vast deal of animation assumed, and eloquence displayed, and even moments of gravity, such as characterize all our meetings for the good of our country. My ignorance of the language disqualified me from participating in the joke; but, from the eagerness and perseverance with which it was pursued, I could plainly perceive that it was very entertaining to those engaged.

The following night I was taken to an exhibition, called a masquerade, which I only mention here as a contrast to the humorous scene I was present at the day before, since it seems to be more properly a ceremony than an amusement; I mention it, too, as one instance, among a very few, in which this generous people have used a reserve toward me in respect of the explanation of their manners and customs; for they fain would have persuaded me, that this masquerade, as it is called, was a mere diversion among the young men and women of quality, while nothing could be more clear, than that it was a religious celebration.

lebration. I can conceive it so natural to laugh at the practices of other countries, especially those which appertain to their religion, that I must own, I think them entirely excusable for veiling those rites and mysteries, for the present, from my eyes, until I shall have worn off my first prejudices. There was something splendidly solemn in this whole ceremony; and, if there was any interruption to the gravity of the scene, it was occasioned by some strange cries and whimsical contortions, which, however ridiculous they appear to the inhabitants of other countries, I have no doubt, make a very serious impression on the bosoms of the natives, as being in honour of the different deities they adore. There was a vast variety of dresses, which I conceived to be representative of particular orders and descriptions, who then, through the medium of one of these fraternity, offered their respective adorations; while the priests wore all the same clothing, called by the natives a domino. I say I conceived all this, because a certain awe and timidity with which I felt myself inspired, made me forbear any question that might seem to result from impertinent curiosity.

There is one circumstance respecting this country, which, to my ideas, is altogether unaccountable; and that is, the great leisure they have for idleness, in the midst of such proofs of their labour and ingenuity as overpower the imagination. It surprises me the more, my beloved father, because you know I have been accustomed to see every individual usefully employed in my own country; it being one of your favourite maxims, that the happiness of your people requires it. Thou, who art a mighty prince, art likewise the best workman in thy dominions; for who can make hatchets to equal thine? But here the great men can bear to sit whole days unemployed, and will eat their food with instruments which other hands have formed, and live in houses with the very principle of whose construction they are little acquainted. From all this must result a vast deal of idle time to be filled up with mere

amusements; and it is astonishing how many these people have imagined, of which we have no conception. They are extremely fond of dancing; a pastime which implies much less exertion with them than with us, and consists chiefly in eating, drinking, and wearing fine ornaments. They extend this accomplishment even to the brute creation; for I observe, that their dogs are taught to dance in the streets of the capital: so much leisure time have Englishmen to bestow upon these diversions.

Their hunting is of various kinds; but the principal object of it is a poor little timid animal they call a hare: I have not yet seen it, but I shall hope to be enabled to send you a description of it, together with an account of the birds and beasts of the country. I cannot, however, forbear mentioning one remarkable property ascribed to it, that of loving to be hunted, although its entertainment consists solely in being torn to pieces by dogs; I was assured, however, of this by a person who is very fond of the chase. Another species of hunting, in which apparently they take great delight, is that of a huge animal called in their language ox; and this takes place often in the streets of the city, to the great terror of all who do not mix in the sport. There are no dogs used in this kind of hunting; at least I could perceive none: indeed I was hurried away, by my kind protectors, so quick when the beast approached, that I could see but little of their mode of proceeding; though I beheld enough to make me wonder at such a predilection in a people, who are, in a thousand respects, so civilised and so humane.

In my future account of the beasts of this country, I shall say a great deal to you, by and by, about a beautiful animal called the horse, which will, with great ease and celerity, bear a man from place to place upon his back. They make this animal conducive to their sport in an amusement they term racing, in which two or more of them are made to run one against the other, with men on their backs, and wounded all the way with sharp spikes. I cannot help wondering



wondering how good men can be pleased with such sights; for it seems an unnatural and ungenerous contest, when two animals are urged beyond their strength, and forced on by violent treatment. I am sorry to find fault with a people to whom we have all, and myself particularly, been so greatly obliged; so that I am drawn opposite ways by truth and gratitude: but then again I consider that nothing is so sacred as truth; and that, after all, my greatest gratitude is due to my father and my king, who requires that I should always tell him the truth.

The other day I observed two men in a field, stripped as naked as it is the custom with us, and beating one another till they were covered with blood, for the diversion of an infinite number of spectators, who seemed to be delighted with the scene. Though our enemies taken in war have often been slaughtered before my eyes, yet I could so ill bear to see this fury between countrymen, and, as I was told, between men who had never quarrelled, and all to amuse their fellow-creatures, that I turned away my eyes, and was sorrowful all the rest of the day. It added a good deal to my chagrin, to observe, in my way home, two dogs very furiously engaged; and, while they were miserably tearing one another to pieces, a vast number of people gathering round them, and provoking their fury by clapping their hands, and a thousand savage gesticulations.

They have also another sport here, of a piece with some which I have already-mentioned, termed by the natives cock-fighting; though I am told that this amusement is a little on the decline. The entertainment consists in contemplating a very fierce combat between two large birds of great beauty, and singular use to mankind, which they arm with instruments that enable them to inflict dreadful wounds on each other, till one of them expires in considerable torture. I am sorry to add, that I have seen some poltroons amuse themselves with throwing sticks at this noble bird, which, for that purpose, they had confined by the leg. Their

diversions within doors are in such great variety, that it would rob more important objects of all my time, if I were to think of describing them to you; beside which, I have only glanced at the greater part of them: for, my dear friend, here I am more profitably employed when I am improving myself in the language, or am acquiring knowledge, which may turn to the future benefit of your majesty's people.

Their principal amusement, in their own houses, appears to be derived from a certain number of thin substances, spotted in a certain manner with different colours, and which, though they allow that they gain no ideas from them, will entertain them during the time that your majesty would take to repel an invasion of your dominions. I am prejudiced against this amusement; because I have observed it operate very unpleasantly on the countenances of those who are engaged in it; and I have seen some very handsome persons, while playing at cards, entirely stripped of what rendered them before so amiable in my eyes. They have not yet made me comprehend how it can be; but they tell it to me as an undoubted truth, that sometimes men lose every thing that is valuable to them in this amusement, if it deserve that name, after we are told of this its destructive tendency; so that be assured, beloved father, I will not attempt to acquire so pernicious a talent. But the pastime of which this great people seems most enamoured, is what their language denominates a play. I have not yet been present at one, so that I cannot pretend to give you any account of it; but as far as I can understand such descriptions as have been given me of it, it is a powerful engine, whether it be used on the side of vice or virtue. I will send you a full account of the first which I shall be permitted to attend; but I fear that the silence observed about this amusement, by my dearest friends, is on the account of the neglect into which this its moral efficacy may have sunk in the present times.

The

The other day I was present at a diversion, which at first wore a formidable appearance, but soon turned out to be a very insignificant spectacle. —A number of persons, armed with weapons, which they call bows and arrows, and which serve to the same purpose pretty nearly as our slings and spears, met together on a spacious plain. The professed object of their meeting is to send their arrows into a painted piece of wood, which they denominate a target; but not more than a small number of those that came with that pretence, partook at all in the diversion; so that, to make a display before a great number of the women of the country, of their persons and decorations, looks to be, with the major part, the real object which assembles them. I could not easily be convinced, that all this noise and parade was to answer no political end: at one time it occurred to me, that it was a sort of divination, by which heaven was consulted in the appointment to certain posts of eminence, and that the generals of armies, and

captains of expeditions, were chosen in this kind of lottery; at another, that some secret terrors of an invasion had begun to spread in the country, and that this martial exercise was meant as preparative to a vigorous defence. I was at length, however, persuaded, that they were a very peaceable set of people, and that all this uproar proceeded only from an outrageous love of flourish and show, and, in fact, was nothing more than an apology for a feather in their hats. I was a little afraid at first of coming near them; but, upon trial, I found them so familiarly and tamely disposed, that one of them suffered me to take his hat off his head, and strutted to and fro, apparently in high good humour, while I admired his feather. There is always a great gathering from all parts to see this spectacle; and the ladies, for whose amusement the whole is designed, appear extravagantly pleased with beholding their husbands and relatives so cheaply metamorphosed into champions and warriors.

#### NAVAL CHARACTER—WITH A FINE PORTRAIT.

**S**IR Andrew Snape Douglas, whose intrepid conduct in the British Navy, entitle him to the veneration and esteem of his country, was the fortunate captor, in the Phaeton frigate, of the Dumourier French privateer, and of her prize the rich St. Jago Register Ship, both of which he brought safe to Spithead; and it will be recorded, and read hereafter with astonishment, on the faithful page of the annexed History, that the silver, gold, jewels, and rich merchandize, found in these prizes, loaded twenty-one waggons, which were employed to convey these valuables to the tower of London; and that the produce of them amounted to near a million of money, which is now sharing amongst those fortunate men who were entitled to participate therein.

On the glorious 1st of June, 1794, ever memorable for the signal victory obtained over the French fleet by Lord Howe, the cool and collected behaviour of Sir A. S. Douglas drew upon him the highest commendations of the com-

mander in chief, whose second captain he was; and, though wounded early in the action, no persuasions could induce him to leave his post, until the laurels of that glorious day were firmly fixed on the temples of Britannia.

In the late action with the French fleet, off Port L'Orient, on the 23d of June, 1795, under Admiral Lord Bridport, the same spirit and activity manifested itself in the zeal and conduct of Sir A. S. Douglas, in the Queen Charlotte, which he commanded to be steered close along-side the opposite ship of the enemy's line; and, though galled and fired into from a fort on the shore, he quitted not his station, until he had secured his prize, which with two other French men of war, were added to the British navy, on that brilliant day. These signal achievements we shall not fail to record in their proper places, in the annexed History of the Wars of England, in which work the elegant Portrait of Sir A. S. Douglas is to be placed.

SELECT





*From the original 1798*

*Sir Andrew Snape Douglas.*

*Published as the Act directs, July 15, 1795.*





## SELECT POETRY.

## PROLOGUE

TO THE

## SECRET TRIBUNAL.

LONG hath the tragic muse in secret mourn'd  
 Her power abus'd, her empire overturn'd,  
 Her sacred laws in mix'd confusion tost,  
 Her rights insulted, and her virtues lost—  
 Her children, long profess'd, dispute her reign,  
 Deserting her's, to hold her sister's train.  
 "No griefs sublime now swell th'impassion'd breast,  
 Array'd in truth's or flowery fiction's vest;  
 No melting tear now swims in sorrow's eye,  
 Nor terror screams—nor pity vents the sigh:  
 Time was, when genius struck the plaintive lyre,  
 And fancy lent her intellectual fire,  
 When poets rais'd the sympathetic strain,  
 And claim'd compassion's tear—nor claim'd in vain."—  
 The changeling, fashion, now disdains to pay  
 Her sullen tribute to the serious lay,  
 While cold and impotent our authors move,  
 And scorn to wake—or pity—fear—or love.—  
 By secondary means they strive to raise  
 The paltry meed of meretricious praise;  
 With flags, spears, helmets, and processions, rise,  
 Pomp, pride, and circumstance, of scenic strife;  
 To storied deeds of bold emprise they lead  
 An army conquer'd—or a nation freed—  
 Prompters and properties their pow'rs unite,  
 And drum, fife, trumpet, rouse the mimic fight—  
 Hark!—here a charge—the trumpet—there retreat—  
 A victory here—tattoo—and there defeat.  
 Thus action, bustle is—and passion, rage,  
 As bards decree, or mightier chiefs engage;  
 While, as the fight grows warm, the pit are froze,  
 The audience shiver as the actor glows.  
 "Nor more the verse has cunning skill to wind  
 The secret springs that agitate the mind;  
 High rais'd on stilts, in measur'd prose, it creeps,  
 While judgment sickens, and while fancy sleeps;

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Nor pause of thought, nor passion's vivid glow,  
 Disturb its studied but unmeaning flow—  
 Monotonous and dull the periods roll,  
 Allure the ear, but leave untouch'd the soul.  
 Nature, howe'er, is never all the same,  
 In multifarious forms she makes her claim—  
 Expression varies as the passion turns,  
 Softens with love, or with resentment burns."

This night, a bard to different views inclin'd  
 Demands the tribute of the willing mind;  
 Happy—if such his enterprising art—  
 To waken feeling—and to touch—the heart.

What time the policy of German rule  
 Fetter'd the native freedom of the soul—  
 When superstition held her sanguine state,  
 And dealt, at will, the rapid blow of fate—  
 The world beheld all pledge of safety gone,  
 And even monarchs trembled on their throne.  
 Judges, with functions unconfin'd and free,  
 Waited to register their dark decree;  
 The culprit once condemn'd—a num'rous band  
 Of secret agents hunt him through the land—  
 Nor age, nor character, nor kin, have force  
 To stay their barb'rous unrelenting course;  
 Bound by an oath th'avenging steel to draw,  
 Guilt became piety—and murder—law.

Britain!—rejoice!—the envied power is thine,  
 To punish malice, and to thwart design—  
 Open as day, our courts judicial move,  
 And rich or poor their equal influence prove;—  
 Rejoice!—your upright juries make you free,  
 Bulwarks of fame—of life—and liberty!  
 To you, our author now submits his cause,  
 Unbias'd guardians of dramatic laws;  
 Guilty, or not—there rests at once his all—  
 For by your verdict—he must—stand or fall.

N. B. Those lines distinguished by inverted commas were omitted in the delivery.

R

TREACHERY.

## TREACHERY.

**W**ARRIORS brave and lovers dear,  
 Discretion's sober whispers hear;  
 Oft are the virtuous and the bold,  
 By arts of treacherous villains fold;  
 The hero's banners mock the wind,  
 But silent treachery's behind.  
 Warriors brave, and lovers dear,  
 Discretion's sober whispers hear.

Whilst beneath the hedges green,  
 The songster of the spring is seen;  
 Whilst to the fluttering western gale  
 He carols forth his tender tale;  
 The hawk, swift messenger of death,  
 Stops at once his song and breath.  
 Warriors brave, &c.

His foe, the forest lord espies,  
 How swift the trembling hunter flies;  
 Cover'd with fraud a pit enthrals,  
 And down the noble victim falls:  
 He falls, he dies, without defence,  
 His foes yet fearing, death dispense.  
 Warriors brave, &c.

## ODE TO EVENING.

**H**AIL, meek-ey'd maiden, clad in so-  
 ber grey,  
 Whose soft approach the weary woodman  
 loves;  
 As homeward bent, to kiss his prattling  
 babes,  
 Jocund, he whistles through the twilight  
 groves.

When Phœbus sinks behind the gilded  
 hills,  
 You lightly o'er the misty meadows walk,  
 The drooping daisies bathe in dulcet  
 dews,  
 And nurse the nodding violets tender  
 stalk.

The panting dryads, that in day's fierce  
 heat,  
 To inmost bow'rs and cooling caverns ran,  
 Return to trip in wanton ev'ning dance;  
 Old Sylvan too returns, and laughing  
 Pan.

To the deep wood the clam'rous rooks  
 repair,  
 Light skims the swallow o'er the wa'try  
 scene;  
 And from the sheep-cote and fresh fur-  
 row'd field,  
 Stout ploughmen meet to wrestle on the  
 green.

The swain that artless sings on yonder  
 rock,  
 His supping sheep and length'ning sha-  
 dow spies,

Pleas'd with the cool, the calm refresh-  
 ing hour,  
 And with hoarse humming of unnum-  
 ber'd flies.

Now ev'ry passion sleeps: desponding  
 love,  
 And pining envy, ever-restless pride;  
 And holy calm creeps o'er my peaceful  
 soul,  
 Anger and mad ambition's storms subside.

O modest evening! oft let me appear  
 A wand'ring vot'ry in thy pensive train;  
 List'ning to ev'ry wildly-warbling note  
 That fills with farewell sweet thy dark-  
 'ning plain.

## ON THE PRESENT WAR.

**W**HAT though in martial pomp and  
 angry form  
 Frowns the stern genius of Britannia's  
 plain,  
 Though through the welkin drear the  
 wintry storm  
 Beats on the mould'ring bones of heroes  
 slain;  
 Curs'd be the coward hand, the heart un-  
 true,  
 That sheaths the sword of truth, which  
 sacred freedom drew.

Reeking with infant flesh and female gore,  
 Let cut-throat Jourdan claim his na-  
 tion's praise,  
 Spite of all human laws, envenom'd pour  
 Murder's deep tide, and discord's furi-  
 ous blaze;  
 Though vengeance seems awhile her  
 wrath to hide,  
 Soon shall her arm be rais'd, and crush  
 the demon's pride.

The impious rulers of a barbarous crew,  
 Each, by that power he sought to  
 strengthen, fell;  
 And idol Mirabeau, from nightly stew,  
 Returning drank his noxious soul to hell.  
 Thus to his friend and king a traitor  
 kind,  
 Infatiate Orleans sunk, the panther of  
 mankind.

As the fair form of freedom deigns to  
 smile  
 On Albion's coast, her lov'd approach  
 I hail;  
 Pleas'd with the contrast of my native  
 isle,  
 Ne'er may the malice of her foes pre-  
 vail:  
 So shall her champions, if my pray'rs are  
 heard,  
 In life meet ev'ry joy; in death, the  
 good's reward.

LONDON



## LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *June 27.**The following Dispatch was this morning received from Admiral Lord Bridport, K. B.*

ROYAL GEORGE, at Sea,

SIR, *June 24, 1795.*

IT is with sincere satisfaction I acquaint you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that his majesty's Squadron under my command attacked the enemy's fleet, consisting of twelve ships of the line, attended with eleven frigates and some smaller cruisers, on the 23d instant, close in with Port L'Orient. The ships which struck are the Alexander, Le Formidable, and Le Tigre, which were with difficulty retained. If the enemy had not been protected and sheltered by the land, I have every reason to believe that a much greater number, if not all the line-of-battle ships, would have been taken or destroyed.

In detailing the particulars of this service, I am to state, that at the dawn of day on the 22d instant, the Nympe and Aistrea, being the look-out frigates a-head, made the signal for the enemy's fleet. I soon perceived that there was no intention to meet me in battle; consequently I made the signal for four of the best-sailing ships, the Sans Pareil, Orion, Ruffel, and Colossus, and soon afterwards for the whole fleet, to chase, which continued all that day, and during the night, with very little wind. Early in the morning on the 23d instant, the headmost ships, the Irresistible, Orion, Queen Charlotte, Ruffel, Colossus, and Sans Pareil, were pretty well up with the enemy, and a little before six o'clock the action began, and continued till near nine o'clock. When the ships struck, the British Squadron was near to some batteries, and in the face of a strong naval port, which will manifest to the public the zeal, intrepidity, and skill, of the admirals, captains, and all other officers, seamen, and soldiers, employed upon this service; and they are fully entitled to my warmest acknowledgments.

I beg also to be allowed to mark my approbation, in a particular manner, of Captain Domett's conduct, serving under my flag, for his manly spirit, and for the assistance I received from his active and attentive mind. I feel likewise great satisfaction in doing justice to the meritorious conduct of all the officers of every class, as well as to the bravery of the

seamen and soldiers in the Royal George, upon this event, and upon former occasions.

I judged it necessary, upon the information I had received of the force of the enemy, to put the Robust, Thunderer, and Standard, into my line of battle; but their distance from my squadron, and under the circumstance of little wind, they could not join me till after the action was over.

I shall proceed upon my station as soon as I have ordered a distribution of the prisoners, and made other necessary arrangements for the squadron. It is my intention to keep at sea, in order to fulfil every part of my instructions.

I have judged it necessary to send Capt. Domett with my dispatches, who will give their lordships such farther particulars as shall have occurred to him on the victory we have gained.

You will herewith receive a list of the killed and wounded, with the ships they belonged to, and the commanders names. *Evan Nepean, Esq.* BRIDPORT.

N. B. I am happy to find, by the report made to me, that Capt. Grindall's wounds are not dangerous.

Note—Capt. Domett reports that the remainder of the enemy's fleet made their escape into L'Orient.

*List of the Killed and Wounded.*

Irresistible, Capt. Grindall: 3 seamen killed, 9 seamen and 3 soldiers wounded. Capt. Grindall and Mr. Troughton, the master, wounded.

Orion, Sir J. Saumarez: 5 seamen and 1 soldier killed; 17 seamen and 1 soldier wounded.

Queen Charlotte, Sir A. S. Douglas: 4 seamen killed; 25 seamen and 5 soldiers wounded. Mr. David Coutts, master's mate, and Mr. Hornsby Charles, midshipman, wounded.

Ruffel, Tho. Larcom: 2 seamen and 1 soldier killed, 9 seamen wounded. Capt. Bacon, of the 118th reg. wounded.

Colossus, J. Monkton: 4 seamen and 1 soldier killed, 26 seamen and 2 soldiers wounded. Lieut. Mends, and Mr. John Whyley, midshipman, wounded.

Sans Pareil, Adm. H. Seymour: 7 seamen and 1 soldier killed. Lieutenants C. M. Stocker and W. Jephcott, killed; Lieut. F. J. Nott, and Mr. Rd. Spencer, midshipman, wounded.

London, E. Griffith: 2 seamen wounded. Mr. J. E. Baker, midshipman, ditto.

Royal George, Adm. Bridport: 5 seamen and 1 soldier wounded.

R 2

INDIA

## INDIA BUDGET.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, June 16.

THE house having resolved itself into a committee, Mr. Joddrell in the chair, to consider the different accounts and expences of the British East-India settlements,

Mr. Dundas rose and said, that he would reduce to as narrow and simple a statement as possible the subject on which he had now to speak, which was in itself of a nature complex and extensive. This he hoped he could easily do, as the accounts he had to bring forward, though various and numerous, were by no means perplexed. Without further preface therefore, he would proceed to state the result, which he hoped would give a full idea of the situation of our East-India interests.

*General Result of the comparison of the last and present Year's Accounts.*

Debts less and assets more in

India	-	-	£. 625,747
Ditto	ditto	at home	584,695

£. 1,210,442

Balance less in China and St.

Helena	-	-	101,723
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£. 1,108,719

Added for cargoes shipped from

India, &c. &c.	-	-	303,530
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The company's affairs better with respect to debts and assets

£. 1,412,249

This sum taken from comparing the stock per computation with the account laid before the house last year,

The balance in favour is	£. 5,493,774
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In the last year's account the amount was	-	4,081,525
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The company's affairs better

in March 1795	-	£. 1,412,249
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Thus it appeared that the company's affairs were, in March 1795, better by a sum of nearly one million and a half. It might be asked, "Why then had nothing been paid to the public of the 500,000l. which, by the act of 1793, the company was bound to pay?"—To this his answer was, that it had been hitherto, and was at the present moment, more wise, in his opinion, not to enforce the demand, for the following reasons:—Judging of the affairs of the company, they must take the state of their cash, not only at the present, but extended to the following, year; at

the time he made the estimate on which he founded that part of the bill, he then estimated that the amount of the India debt did not exceed 5,000,000l. but several bills had been accepted in India before the act, which went to confine their debts to that sum, reached that place. Besides, all the appropriations and estimates were made on the footing of a peace arrangement, which he hardly need say was very different from that which the necessities of the war have occasioned. The company, he stated, had paid in the last year no less than 800,000l. and yet did not pay as much as they ought, because their ships were kept in India in order to protect the trade of the country; and, if they were deprived of the advantages of so much trade as they might have employed those ships in carrying home, they laid out so much the less money: much less than they must necessarily lay out next year, for they must pay not only for those ships kept in India, but pay war-freight for all the ships they have taken into their service, which is double the ordinary freight; so that it would be scarcely possible for them to pay all those, and the bills of exchange from China, without making a great deficiency in the cash-estimate for next year.—He might be asked how this deficiency was to be made up? the house would see that last year, on account of bad sales and other disqualifying circumstances, it was thought expedient to allow the company to increase their debt from two to three millions; of this privilege, however, they made no use; therefore that credit still remained intire for them to cover the deficiency of their cash-estimate, and to cover and extinguish incumbrances. It might then be asked why the company should not pay the 500,000l. due to the public, and issue bonds for it; because, when the credit of a million was granted to them, it was on the supposition that they would pay off this sum; and, not applying it to this purpose, they had no right to the credit? Whether this observation was well or ill founded, he would not discuss, but barely give it as his decided opinion, that it would not be wise to ask it, and leave them less full-handed than that cash and that credit would make them; for, if it was demanded, the company must have issued bonds, and must raise the rate of interests to be paid; and it would be objected that they should not borrow at four per cent. when they were paying dividends of five. They must



must therefore raise the money at five per cent. the consequences of which would be, that all their bonds would be thrown in upon them.

Another question might possibly be put—"If you are aware that, owing to the cramping circumstances of the war, you carry on trade to so great a disadvantage, why not apply your revenues to the payment of the debt in India, and abridge your trade, by which you will save 900,000*l.* in extra freights?" This he admitted to be true in fact, but called on the house to consider what the consequences of acting upon it would be. One great object of the regulation of 1793 was, to make the port of London the emporium of India commerce; to that end he allotted such a large sum for the carrying on of trade, and for that end he made a provision for enabling the servants of the company to bring home their private fortunes in private trade, thereby at once to swell our own commerce, and deprive rival nations of the India market. It was with this view too that he would allow Indian shipping to transport goods to Europe, without which provisions the whole private trade and private fortune of the company's servants would become a capital to the Danes and Swedes to carry on the India trade, and underfel us in foreign markets. Therefore, though in a commercial point, contracting their trade for the present, and applying the money to the payment of their debts, might be attended with a saving to the company, still he would maintain it to be bad policy to do so; for, if the trade was diminished, the shipping must of course be diminished also, which, as those ships were of a kind applicable only to that particular purpose, would materially injure the capitals of men laid out in that trade; besides, it would, only for the sake of a temporary gain, encourage other nations to take up the trade.

He declared he did not know a single circumstance that could lead him to doubt the increasing prosperity of the affairs of Great Britain in India. In Bengal they had the most clear proof of increasing population, in the increase of the sale of salt; besides, the land revenues were increased and increasing: those, who pressed by the uncertain tenures under which they formerly held the lands, or were most backward in payment, having (encouraged as they are now by permanent tenures) become not only punctual in paying the running rent, but diligent in payment of their arrears; and when they see that they live under equal laws—that all are alike protected—that agriculture is re-

ceiving encouragement, the subjects of that country could not fail to find a deep interest in the prosperity of this. The same might be said of Madras. Taking the Southern Polygars from the nabob into our own hands, could not but have the happiest effects; for they, seeing that they were treated with justice and gentleness, and dealt by with an equal hand—seeing that we made demands on them, not as suited our necessities, but as was conformable to right, would punctually pay their rents, and alter the face of things in that part for the better. This, he said, had already daily appeared. Besides, a large part of Madras (the Northern Circars) was never brought to that perfection to which it was entitled. This was a subject on which he could not now enter—perhaps when it came to be considered, the example of Bengal might be thought eligible to be followed. As there was no such receipt for increasing population and prosperity as security, Madras would perhaps increase as rapidly as Bengal, when the same sentiment of security pervaded the opinions of the people. All innovations, even those that are most good, must be wrought progressively; men must be led, not driven, even to that which promotes their own benefit. With due encouragement, and regulations founded on justice and sound principle, he had little doubt of an investment coming from Madras as well as Bengal. At all events, he had no fear of any defalcation. The same principle of reasoning applied still stronger to Bombay, the revenues of which arose from the countries ceded by Tippoo Sultan. As yet they had turned out but 120,000*l.* less than the value at which they were handed over to Lord Cornwallis; by better government, and repairing the ravages of the war, they will become better. Hitherto the increase had been extraordinary. The first year the amount was three lacks, the next eleven, and the third seventeen: and there was no reason to doubt that they would have a vast progressive increase. He did not say this with a view of raising any too sanguine hopes, but to shew that the event was adequate to all he had foretold.

At home the prospect was equally flattering. In a time of war, when a great part of Europe was shut out from commerce, the sales of the company were greater than ever; and there was no danger or apprehension of their being less, particularly when measures should be taken to throw the whole private trade into England and take it from foreign countries. He declared he had no objection to open the trade to all nations; nor would  
he

he look for a commercial monopoly; he considered that country as territorial possession, and open markets its advantage: but he would not allow them to carry on a trade rested on the revenues and property of the East-India company. On the full view of the whole, he had not the smallest doubt that all his hopes of India would be accomplished, and all his prophecies respecting it verified: nay, that they would before this, had not the war existed.

One article he could hint at as the subject of a future day. The company had given 60,000*l.* for men for the public service; they deserved therein the praise and grateful acknowledgements of their country; but as there was a complete appropriation of their revenues, and that gift did not come under any appropriation, they must necessarily have an act of indemnity for it.

Before he dismissed the subject, he thought it necessary to say a few words, to guard the house from being misled as to the charges to be deducted from the revenues of India. He did not mean to hold out that the surplus would in future years be so great, for justice to the Indian army required that they should make a great variation. That army was on a footing contrary to the establishment of all other armies: originally it was extremely small, and intended only as a guard to particular factories; but now, when it has increased to a size as large as the armies of European monarchs, it was impossible that the same establishment would answer for it. Yet this was now the case; for they were deprived of the power of rising higher than the office of colonel, and were bereft of all that hope of rank which was essential to the feelings of military men. There was also a stagnation in the succession of the lower ranks of officers; he therefore intended to have established a staff of field officers, and to set on foot an universal promotion. This could not fail of creating additional expence, but justice, fairness, and policy, demanded it.

There were other disadvantages, of a more cruel nature, under which the Indian army laboured: an officer, after perhaps a slow and dreary progress of thirty years, during which time he was continually combating all the dangers of a dreadful clime and of an enemy, must, as things are now constituted, make up his mind to be an exile from his native country, or return without any acknowledgement or reward from those he had served, to starve perhaps, unless fortune enabled him to lay up something for the support of old age. He therefore thought that af-

ter a certain number of years service, they should be enabled to return home with the full pay of their rank. But this was not all—it often occurred, that at the very first outset the climate makes it necessary for an officer to return for the recovery of his health; instead of which he is obliged to remain there, struggling with a broken heart and disease; for, if he returns without means, he must starve, or be dependent on the charity of his friends, a state not fitted for the mind of a soldier. If, then, an officer should be obliged by bad health to return for ever, or for experiments to get restored, he should do so without loss of either rank or pay. It was politic to keep in their minds the thoughts of their native country, and to give them, not wantonly, but on a fair occasion, the power to visit their friends, (even without sickness,) without forfeiting either pay or rank.

All those points he conceived to be great and important rights, that should no longer be postponed; and, before the last ships of the season sailed, he would suggest to the company the adoption of those measures, and had little doubt of their being effected.

Mr. Dundas concluded by moving a string of resolutions conformable to the statement already made.

Mr. Hussey asked what was the amount of the debt due by the company to government?

Mr. Dundas replied, that the company contended there was none.

Mr. Hussey said, he had heard every year of the flattering state of the company's accounts, which he wished to see realized. In 1781, the balance in favour of the East-India company was 5,536,532*l.* and this year it was nearly the same, being 5,493,774*l.* which was little more than 42,000*l.* less. This account was exclusive of the capital stock, the difference of which he did not know. In 1781, it was computed at 3,200,000*l.* and he now understood it was 7,500,000*l.* so that with the additional 400,000*l.* advanced by the proprietors, the result was just the same.

Mr. Pitt informed the honourable gentleman it was not a fair comparison, since the whole accounts of the company were formerly subjects of dispute, being involved in irregularity, which was not now the case. He bade him recollect, that in 1781 the company did not know the whole and true state of their accounts, since the war was at that time continuing, and they were also then contracting large debts. Their accounts having been since wound up and regulated, if any former year was taken to compare with, it should be one since



since the conclusion of the war, and even then the same observations would in a great measure apply; for it was not till after the orders had been sent out from home, and that they had been explained and enforced abroad, that the improvements took place. Each year since then the improvements have increased; but, even after the regulations of the new system had been made, no perfect statement of the debts and assets could be given, because there had not yet been any accurate view. The accounts of debts owing were consequently some millions short. He advised him, however, if he took any year to compare by, to let it be one since 1786, which was the first year when the improvements by the new system were effected.

Mr. Husley excused himself, by stating, that he did not select the accounts of 1781 as partial or favourable to objections, but because he had no other except those of 1778. He thought, however, that the affairs of the company were accurately known in 1781.

General Smith said, he had expressed his satisfaction more than once at the present regulation of the company's affairs, for they possessed a perspicuity and precision which they never possessed before; but he wished that time was given to the house, after the accounts had been laid before them, to make an investigation, and that they ought either to agree or object to them, as occasion should require. He thought there was reason to expect an increase instead of a diminution of the company's revenues; and he observed, that upon the last point he came down with very different ideas to what he had since entertained. Pathetic as the right honourable gentleman had been, he did not go a sufficient length; and, to prove this, he read a letter from the secretary at Bengal to Lieutenant-colonel Peché, dated the 24th of April 1785, in answer to an application for passage-money for those officers who, from their wounds, or for the recovery of their health, were desirous of obtaining a temporary return to England.—The answer stated, that the court at Bengal could not comply with the request, but that they were at all times ready to attend to the applications of individuals, and, if possible, to afford relief. The general thought that it was no disgrace at all for the officers to apply for that pay which was their right, and would have troubled the house with a detail, but for the assurances of the right honourable gentleman, which he had heard with heart-felt satisfaction.

Mr. Scott exculpated the company, and asked if one application had been made

since that letter without the obtainment of relief? In answer to Mr. Husley, he said, that till 1786 or 1787, the company never knew the state of their accounts within three or four millions, and that the revenues of India were now two millions more than then. The comparison of 1781 did not therefore bear, since we had now proof positive that every item was correct.

Mr. Lushington agreed with the honourable general opposite, in his observations on the hard condition of the East-India officers, some of whom have been eighteen months, or two years, in this country without any means of subsistence. He did himself make a motion two years ago in the general court for their relief, by which their expectations were raised, and their circumstances rendered more distressing. He justified the company, however, by declaring that their neglect did not proceed from any want of liberality, but from the embarrassment of their affairs. When directions are given by the court of controul, he had no doubt but they would receive the sanction of the company.—He then complimented Mr. Dundas on the accurate statement he had delivered, and for his plan of allowing a permanent rent to the native Segars; a plan which he had himself submitted to the court at Bengal in 1773.

Sir Francis Baring, alluding to what had fallen from General Smith, said, it was the first time he had heard any attack on the court of directors, for their conduct to the officers of the company. Every service had its different rules; the officers in the king's service had their advantages, as had likewise those in the service of the company. A colonel had a yearly income of 10,000l.—he did not know what might be the pay of a general. The honourable general had surely himself no reason to complain.

General Smith expressed himself surprised at the treatment which he had just received from his old friend. He had made no attack on the court of directors; he had only found fault with the system which prevailed with respect to the officers. What had just dropped from his honourable friend he must suppose, either to be the effect of temporary heat, or a piece of good-humoured railery; but, as it seemed to convey a personal insinuation, he desired any one to find a single action to blame in the whole course of his life; and referred to the testimony which had been given to his conduct, by the vote of thanks which had been passed for his services to the company.—The resolutions were then successively put and carried.

P R O.

## PROROGATION OF PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS, *June 27.*

**T**HIS day his majesty came to the house of peers; and, being in his royal robes seated on the throne with the usual solemnity, Sir Francis Molyneux, gentleman usher of the black rod, was sent with a message from his majesty to the house of commons, commanding their attendance in the house of peers. The commons being come thither accordingly, his majesty was pleased to give the royal assent to the several acts passed. After which his majesty was pleased to make the following most gracious speech:

*"My Lords and Gentlemen,*

"The zealous and uniform regard which you have shewn to the general interests of my people, and particularly the prudent, firm, and spirited, support, which you have continued to afford me in the prosecution of the great contest in which we are still unavoidably engaged, demand my warmest acknowledgments.

"The encouragement which my allies must derive from the knowledge of your sentiments, and the extraordinary exertions which you have enabled me to make in supporting and augmenting my naval and military forces, afford the means most likely to conduce to the restoration of peace to these kingdoms, and to the re-establishment of general tranquillity on a secure, an honourable, and a lasting foundation."

*"Gentlemen of the House of Commons,*

"I have to return you my hearty thanks for the liberal and ample supplies which the resources of the country have enabled you to provide, beyond all former example, for the various exigencies of the public service.

"I have also to acknowledge, with peculiar sensibility, the recent proof which you have given me of your attachment to my person and family, in the provision which you have made for settling the es-

tablishment of the Prince and Princess of Wales, and for extricating the prince from the incumbrances in which he was involved."

*"My Lords and Gentlemen,*

"It is impossible to contemplate the internal situation of the enemy with whom we are contending, without indulging an hope, that the present circumstances of France may, in their effects, hasten the return of such a state of order and regular government as may be capable of maintaining the accustomed relations of amity and peace with other powers.

"The issue, however, of these extraordinary transactions is out of the reach of human foresight.

"Till that desirable period arrives, when my subjects can be restored to the secure enjoyment of the blessings of peace, I shall not fail to make the most effectual use of the force which you have put into my hands.

"It is with the utmost satisfaction that I have recently received the advices of an important and brilliant success obtained over the enemy, by a detachment of my fleet under the able conduct of Lord Bridport.

"I have every reason to rely on the continuance of the distinguished bravery and good conduct of my fleet and armies, as well as the zeal, spirit, and perseverance, of my people, which have been uniformly manifested through the whole course of this just and necessary war."

Then the lord chancellor, by his majesty's command, said:

*"My Lords and Gentlemen,*

"It is his majesty's royal will and pleasure that this parliament be prorogued to Wednesday, the fifth day of August next, to be then here holden; and this parliament is accordingly prorogued to Wednesday, the 5th day of August next."

THE news of this month will add greatly to the lustre of our naval character.—Admiral Cornwallis, who was cruising on the French coast with five sail of the line, fell in with the Brest fleet of 13 ships of the line, who pursued and came up with him; and in a running fight of a whole day, the French got so close in with the British squadron that the two sternmost were in great danger of being taken. The admiral then called his own officers about him, and told them his flag should never be struck, nor could he bear to see two British ships of the line lost; and, if they would support him in opinion, all the squadron should be lost, or the ships in danger saved. The officers and men answered in the affirmative, and gave the admiral three cheers, on which he bore down to the assistance of the ships, which had eight sail of Frenchmen upon them, and after a gallant action brought them off in safety, and arrived in port with little or no loss; but had greatly crippled the French fleet.—The French fleet consisted of 13 sail of the line of 80 and 74 guns each, 7 frigates, 7 razees, and 2 brigs; the English of 1 ship of 100 guns, 4 of 74, and two frigates.

Capt. Cochrane, with the Thetis and Hussar frigates, has taken two French store-ships, the Prevoyante of 24 guns, and the Raison of 18, which he carried safe into the port of Halifax in America.



## ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF HENRY V.

**H**ENRY V. soon after his accession to the throne of England, determined to take advantage of the troubles in which France was, at that time, involved. Charles, who was then king of France, was subject to frequent fits of lunacy, which totally disqualified him from reigning: in these intervals the ambition of his vassals and courtiers had room for exertion, and they grew powerful from the weakness of their king. Isabella, of Bavaria, his queen, was at the head of one faction; the Duke of Burgundy of another; the faction of the children of the Duke of Orleans was considerable; that only which held to the king was feeble. Each of these, as they happened to prevail, branded their captives with the names of traitors, and the gibbets were at once hung with the bodies of the accused and the accusers.

This was thought a most favourable opportunity to rescue, from France, those grants that had formerly been given up by treaty: Henry, therefore, invaded that kingdom with an army of fifty thousand men. He took Harfleur, and advanced into a country already rendered desolate by factions, and which he now totally laid waste by a foreign invasion: but, though the enemy made but a feeble resistance, yet the climate seemed to fight for them; a contagious dysentery carried off three parts of Henry's soldiers. In such a situation he had recourse to an expedient common enough in the remote times we are describing; he challenged the dauphin to single combat, offering to stake his pretensions on the event. This challenge, as might naturally be expected, was rejected; and the French, though disagreeing internally, now seemed united at the appearance of foreign danger.

Henry soon began to repent of his rash inroad into a country, where disease, and a powerful army, every moment threatened destruction; and, therefore, thought of retiring to Calais. In this retreat, which was

at once both painful and dangerous, Henry took every method to inspire his troops with courage and perseverance, and shewed them, in himself, an example of patience and resignation. In the mean time the French army was drawn up to obstruct his passage, nor was there any possibility of his passing them without a battle; yet even that could promise but small hopes of victory: his army was wasted with disease, their spirits worn down with fatigue, destitute of provisions, and but nine thousand in number, to sustain the shock of an enemy amounting to an hundred and fifty thousand. This disparity, as it raised the courage of the French, so it impressed the English with terror. So confident were the French leaders of success, that they began to treat for the ransom of their prisoners. On the 25th of October, 1415, the two armies drew up in battle array, early in the morning, near the castle of Agincourt. A narrow ground, flanked on one side by a wood, on the other by a rivulet, was to be the scene of action. The constable of France commanded the French, and Henry with Edward duke of York, the English. Both armies, for some time kept silently gazing at each other, as if afraid to begin; which Henry perceiving, with a cheerful countenance, cried out, My friends, since they will not begin, let us set them the example; come on, and the Blessed Trinity be our protection! And now the whole army set forward with a shout. The French still continued to wait their approach with intrepidity, when the English archers let fly a shower of arrows, three feet long, which did great execution. The French calvary advancing, to repel these, two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them. The English, seeing their confusion, now threw by their arrows, and fell upon them sword in hand: though enfeebled by disease, yet they recompensed the defect by valour. The French at first repulsed the assailants;

but

but they, resolving to conquer or die, again burst in upon the enemy, with such impetuosity that they gave way: in the mean time, a body of English horse, which had been concealed in a neighbouring wood, rushing out, flanked the French infantry; and now a total disorder began to ensue.

The first line of the enemy being thus routed, the second line began to march up to interrupt the progress of victory. Henry therefore, alighting from his horse, presented himself to the enemy, with an undaunted countenance; and at the head of his men, fought on foot, encouraging some, and assisting others. Eighteen French cavaliers, who were resolved to kill him or die in the attempt, rushing forth together, advanced, and one of them stunned him with a blow of his battle-axe; they then fell upon him in a body, and he was just going to sink under their blows, when David Gam, a valiant Welchman, and two more of the same country, came to his aid: they soon turned the attention of the French from the king; but, being overpowered themselves, they fell dead at his feet. The king had now recovered his senses, and, more help coming in, the eighteen Frenchmen were all slain; upon which he knighted the brave Welchmen who had so nobly fought in his defence. The heat of the battle still increasing, his courage seemed to increase; and now the thickest of the battle was gathered round his person: his brother being fallen down by his side, stunned with the blow of a club, he covered him for a while; but, receiving another blow himself, it threw him on his knees: he soon, however, recovered, and his valour seemed to inspire his troops with fury; they ran headlong upon the enemy, and, by an unexpected attack, put them into such disorder that their leaders could never after bring them to the charge. The Duke of Alençon, who commanded the second line, seeing it fly, resolved by one desperate stroke to retrieve the day, or fall in the attempt: wherefore running up to King Henry, and crying aloud that he was the Duke of Alençon, he discharged such a blow on his head,

that it carried off a part of the king's helmet: Henry, not having been able to ward off the blow, soon returned it, by striking the duke to the ground; and he was killed by the surrounding crowd, all the king's efforts to save him from their fury being ineffectual.

The two first lines being thus dispersed, the third refused to assist them, and marched off without fighting. The king, therefore, thinking himself thus sure of victory, was surprised with an account that his baggage was plundering by the enemy: just struck with an apprehension that the French had rallied, and being sensible that the number of his prisoners was greater than that of his army, he rashly ordered all the prisoners to be put to death; which order was accordingly executed. This severity tarnished the glory which his victory would otherwise have acquired; but all the heroism and all the virtues of that age are tinged with barbarity.

This victory, however great it may appear, was rather ostentatious than useful: it acquired the English glory, but not dominion; and, while it settled Henry's interest more firmly in the hearts of his subjects, it only served to inspire him with a love of new conquests. With this view, therefore, he returned to England, in order to procure new stores of men and money.

The war between the two kingdoms, from this period, seemed to be carried on rather by negotiations, treasons, plots, and fomented jealousies, than by the force of arms. France was but as one vast theatre of crimes, murders, punishments, and devastations: the Duke of Orleans was assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy, and he, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin; while the son, desiring to revenge his father's death, acknowledged Henry as lawful heir to the crown, and a treaty was concluded between Henry and the young Duke of Burgundy at Troyes, by which he was acknowledged heir to the crown of France, after the death of Charles, who still reigned, though, by his diseases, rendered



dered totally incapable of business. Catharine, the French king's daughter, was given to Henry in marriage; and it was resolved, that the dauphin should be brought to an account for the murder of the late Duke of Burgundy. Things being adjusted in this manner, Henry entered the city of Paris without opposition, and there conducted the government at his pleasure; while the feeble Charles was attended as a king indeed, but with scarcely even the liberty of a subject.

The dauphin, in the mean time, wandered about, a stranger in his own dominions, while Henry returned to London, to raise new subsidies and new troops to secure his late conquests. His presence, as might be expected, inspired his subjects with joy; but they, at the same time, could not be much pleased with a conquest, which seemed likely to transfer the seat of empire from among them. The parliament, upon various pretences, refused him a supply equal to his demands: however, he again set sail with a new-raised army, and the dauphin, upon his appearance, thought fit again to retire. Henry then entered Paris, and, while Charles had but a small court, he was attended with a very magnificent one. On Whit Sunday they dined together in public, the two kings and the two queens with their crowns on their heads; Charles, indeed, receiving apparent homage, but Henry commanding with absolute authority. After this he prepared to stop the progress of the enemy, who had already taken some towns; but, whilst he flattered himself with a speedy victory, he was attacked with a fistula, which the physicians were at that time too unskilful to treat with judgment. He died at the castle of Vincennes, with the same intrepidity with which he lived, and was buried at Westminster-abbey. His military fame acquired him the reputation of every other good quality; he favoured the clergy, and they have returned the debt to his memory. In general, the good or the erroneous conduct of

a prince appears rather after his death than during his life-time; and the successors of imprudent kings are often taxed with errors not their own. He died, however, fortunate, by falling in the midst of his triumphs, and leaving his subjects with reputation.

This prince possessed many eminent virtues; and, if we give indulgence to ambition in a monarch, or rank it, as the vulgar do, among his virtues, they were unstained by any considerable blemish; his abilities appeared equally in the cabinet and in the field: the boldness of his enterprises was no less remarkable than his personal valour in conducting them. He had the talent of attaching his friends by affability, and gaining his enemies by address and clemency. The English, dazzled by the lustre of his character, still more by that of his victories, were reconciled to the defects of his title. The French almost forgot he was an enemy; and his care of maintaining justice in his civil administration, and preserving discipline in his armies, made some amends to both nations for the calamities inseparable from those wars in which his short reign was almost occupied. That he could forgive the Earl of Marche, who had a better right to the throne than himself, is a sure proof of his magnanimity; and that the earl relied so on his friendship, is no less a proof of his established character for candour and sincerity. There remain, in history, few instances of such mutual trust; and still fewer, where neither found reason to repent it.

The exterior figure of this great prince, as well as his deportment, was engaging. His stature was somewhat above the middle size; his countenance beautiful, his limbs genteel, but full of vigour; and he excelled in all warlike and manly exercises.

Died 31st August, 1422: in the year of his age 34; of his reign the 10th.

## REVOLT OF MASSANIELLO, THE FISHERMAN OF NAPLES.

WHEN the kings of Spain first assumed the regal authority over Naples, they set no bounds to their exactions, and of consequence the people were loaded with all manner of taxes; even the most indispensable necessities of life not being exempted. In 1647, a new tax was laid on fruit; which the people looked upon as the most grievous oppression, the chief part of their subsistence, during the summer months, being fruit, which in the kingdom of Naples is very plentiful and delicious. The edict for collecting the new duty was no sooner published, than the people began to murmur in a tumultuous manner; and, when the viceroy came abroad, they surrounded his coach, bawling out to have their grievances redressed. They were encouraged in their sedition, by the news that the citizens of Palermo had actually revolted on account of the imposition of new duties. The viceroy, therefore, apprehensive of greater disorders, began to think of taking off the tax; but those who farmed the tax having bribed some of his favourites, he was by their means persuaded not to abolish it. The indignation of the people, who had suspected his intention, was now greatly increased, especially as they were privately excited by several malcontents. The farmers of the revenue, and all those concerned in raising the taxes, had incurred the hatred and detestation of the people, particularly of Tommaso Aniello, commonly called Massaniello of Amalfi, a fisherman, whose wife, having been discovered in smuggling a small quantity of meal, was imprisoned, and condemned to pay a fine of one hundred ducats.

Massaniello, a few years before, had come to Naples from Amalfi, where his father had been a fisherman. At this time he was about twenty-four years of age, and the father of four children. He was of a middling stature, and an agreeable aspect; was distinguished for his boldness, activity, and integrity; and had a great in-

fluence with his companions, by whom he was beloved and esteemed. As he was obliged even to sell his furniture to pay the heavy fine, he had conceived an implacable hatred against the farmers of the taxes, and was also moved with compassion for the miserable state of the city and kingdom. He therefore formed a design, with some of his companions, to raise a tumult in the market-place on the festival-day of the Carmelites, usually celebrated about the middle of July, when between five hundred and six hundred youths entertain the people by a mock-fight; one half of them in the character of Turks, defending a wooden castle, which is attacked and stormed by the other half in the character of Christians. Massaniello being appointed captain of one of these parties, and one Pione, who was privy to his design, commanding the other, for several weeks before the festival they were very diligent in reviewing and training their followers, who were armed with sticks and reeds: but a small and unforeseen accident tempted them to begin their enterprise without waiting for the festival.

On the 7th of July a dispute happening in the market-place betwixt the tax-gatherers and some gardeners of Pozzuolo who had brought some figs into the city, whether the buyer or seller should pay the duty; after the tumult had continued several hours, Massaniello, who was present with his company, excited the mob to pillage the office built in the market for receiving the duty, and to drive away the officers with stones. The elect of the people, who, by deciding against the gardeners, had increased the tumult, ran to the palace, and informed the viceroy, who most imprudently neglected all means of putting a stop to the commotion. Massaniello, in the mean time, being joined by great numbers of people, ordered his young troops to set fire to all the officers for the taxes through the city; which command



mand being executed with dispatch, he then conducted them directly to the palace, where the viceroy, instead of ordering his Spanish and German guards to disperse them, encouraged their insolence by timidly granting their demands. As they rushed into the palace in a furious manner, he escaped by a private door, and endeavoured to save himself in Castel del Ovo; but being overtaken by the rioters in the streets, he was trampled upon by them, and pulled by the hair and whiskers. However, by throwing some handfuls of gold among them, he again escaped, and took sanctuary in a convent of Minims, where, being joined by the Archbishop of Naples, Cardinal Filomarini, and several nobles, by their advice he signed a billet, by which he abolished all taxes upon provisions. As a means to quell the tumult, he likewise desired the cardinal to offer Massaniello a pension of two thousand four hundred crowns, who generously rejected the bribe; and declared, that if the viceroy would keep his word, he would find them obedient subjects.

It was now expected that the tumult would cease; but Massaniello, upon his return to the market-place, being joined by several malcontents, among whom were Genuino and one Peronne, who had formerly been a captain of the Sbirri, he was advised by them to order the houses of those concerned in raising the tax to be burned; which were accordingly in a few days reduced to ashes, with all their rich furniture. Massaniello being now absolute master of the whole city, and being joined by great numbers of people of desperate fortunes, he required the viceroy, who had retired to the Castel Nuovo, to abolish all the taxes, and to deliver up the writ of exemption, granted by Charles V. This new demand greatly embarrassed the viceroy; but to appease the people, he drew up a false deed in letters of gold, and sent it to them by their favourite the Duke of Matalone, who had before been in confinement. The fraud, however, being discovered, the duke was pulled from his horse and maltreated by the mob, and at

length committed as a prisoner to Peronne. This accident, to the great joy of the viceroy, enraged the people against the nobility, several of whom they killed, burnt the houses of others, and threatened to extirpate them all. Massaniello, in the mean time, tattered and half naked, commanded his followers, who were now well armed, and reckoned about one hundred thousand men, with a most absolute sway. He ate and slept little, gave his orders with great precision and judgment, appeared full of moderation, without ambition and interested views. But the Duke of Matalone having procured his liberty by bribing Peronne, the viceroy imitated his example, and secretly corrupted Genuino to betray his chief. A conspiracy was accordingly formed against Massaniello by Matalone and Peronne; the duke, who was equally exasperated against the viceroy, proposing, that after his death his brother D. Joseph should head the rebels.

Massaniello in the mean time, by means of the cardinal archbishop, was negotiating a general peace and accommodation; but, while both parties were assembling in the convent of the Carmelites, the banditti hired by Matalone made an unsuccessful attempt upon Massaniello's life. His followers immediately killed one hundred and fifty of them. Peronne and D. Joseph being discovered to be concerned in the conspiracy, were likewise put to death, and the duke with great difficulty escaped. Massaniello by this conspiracy was rendered more suspicious and severe. He began to abuse his power by putting several persons to death upon slight pretences; and, to force the viceroy to an accommodation, he cut off all communication with the castles, which were unprovided with provision and ammunition.—The viceroy likewise, being afraid lest the French should take advantage of the commotion, earnestly desired to agree to a treaty; which was accordingly concluded on the fifth day of the insurrection, by the mediation of the archbishop. By the treaty it was stipulated, that all duties imposed since the

the time of Charles V. should be abolished; that the writ of exemption granted by that emperor should be delivered to the people; that for the future no new taxes should be imposed; that the vote of the elect of the people should be equal to the votes of the nobility; that an act of oblivion should be granted for all that was past; and that the people should continue in arms under Massaniello till the ratification of the treaty by the king.

By this treaty, no less than ten thousand persons, who fattened upon the blood of the public, were ruined.—The people, when it was solemnly published, manifested an extreme joy, believing they had now recovered all their ancient rights and privileges. Massaniello, at the desire of the viceroy, went to the palace to visit him, accompanied by the archbishop, who was obliged to threaten him with excommunication, before he would consent to lay aside his rags and assume a magnificent dress. He was received by the duke with the greatest demonstrations of respect and friendship, while the duchess entertained his wife, and presented her with a robe of cloth of silver, and some jewels.—The viceroy, to preserve

some shadow of authority, appointed him captain-general; and at his departure made him a present of a golden chain of great value, which with great difficulty he was prevailed upon to accept; but yielded at length to the intreaties of the cardinal. Next day, in consequence of the commission granted him by the viceroy, he began to exercise all the functions of sovereign authority; and having caused a scaffold to be erected in one of the streets, and several gibbets, he judged all crimes, whether civil or military, in the last resort; and ordered the guilty to be immediately put to death, which was the punishment he assigned to all offences. Though he neglected all forms of law, and even frequently judged by physiognomy, yet he is said not to have overlooked any criminal, or punished any innocent person.

His grandeur and prosperity were of very short continuance; for, his mind becoming distracted and delirious for two or three days, he committed a great many mad and extravagant actions; and on the 18th of July was assassinated with the consent of the viceroy.

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 110.

OF the shape and character of the Mexican Indians, the Abbé Clavigero gives a most advantageous description; which he asserts no one who reads it in America will contradict, unless he views them with the eye of a prejudiced mind. It is true, that Ulloa says, in speaking of the Indians of Quito, he had observed, "that imperfect people abounded among them; that they were either irregularly diminutive, or monstrous in some other respect; that they became either insensible, dumb, or blind, or wanted some limb of their body." Having therefore made inquiry respecting this singularity of the Quitans, the abbé found, that such defects were neither caused by bad

humours, nor by the climate, but by the mistaken and blind humanity of their parents, who, in order to free their children from the hardships and toils to which the healthy Indians are subjected by the Spaniards, fix some deformity or weakness upon them that they may become useless: a circumstance of misery which does not happen in other countries of America, nor in those places of the same kingdom of Quito where the Indians are under no such oppression. M. de Paw, and in agreement with him Dr. Robertson, says, that no deformed persons are to be found among the savages of America; because, like the ancient Lacedemonians, they put to death those children which are born hunch-



hunch-backed, blind, or defective in any limb; but that in those countries where they are formed into societies, and the vigilance of their rulers prevents the murder of such infants, the number of their deformed individuals is greater than it is in any country of Europe. This would make an exceeding good solution of the difficulty if it were true: but if, possibly, there has been in America a tribe of savages who have imitated the barbarous example of the celebrated Lacedæmonians, it is certain that those authors have no grounds to impute such inhumanity to the rest of the Americans; for that it has not been the practice, at least with the far greater part of those nations, is to be demonstrated from the attestations of the authors the best acquainted with their customs.

No argument against the New World can be drawn from the colour of the Americans: for their colour is less distant from the white of the Europeans than it is from the black of the Africans, and a great part of the Asiatics. The hair of the Mexicans, and of the greater part of the Indians, is, as we have already said, coarse and thick; on their face they appear to have little, and in general none on their arms and legs: but it is an error to say, as M. de Paw does, that they are entirely destitute of hair in all the other parts of their body. This is one of the many passages of the Philosophical Researches, at which the Mexicans, and all the other nations, must smile to find an European philosopher so eager to divest them of the dress they had from nature. Don Ulloa, indeed, in the description which he gives of the Indians of Quito, says, that hair neither grows upon the men nor upon the women when they arrive at puberty, as it does on the rest of mankind; but whatever singularity may attend the Quitans, or occasion this circumstance, there is no doubt, that among the Americans in general, the period of puberty is accompanied with the same symptoms as it is among other nations of the world. In fact, with the North Americans, it is disgraceful to be hairy on the body.

They say it likens them to hogs. They therefore pluck the hair as fast as it appears. But the traders who marry their women, and prevail on them to discontinue this practice, say, that nature is the same with them as with the whites. As to the beards of the men, had Buffon or de Paw known the pains and trouble it costs them to pluck out by the roots the hair that grows on their faces, they would have seen that nature had not been deficient in that respect. Every nation has its customs. "I have seen an Indian beau, with a looking-glass in his hand, (says Mr. Jefferson,) examining his face for hours together, and plucking out by the roots every hair he could discover with a kind of tweezer made of a piece of fine brass wire, twisted round a stick and which he used with great dexterity."

The very aspect of an Angolan, Mandingan, or Congan, would have shocked M. de Paw, and made him recal that censure which he passes on the colour, the make, and hair, of the Americans. What can be imagined more contrary to the idea we have of beauty, and the perfection of the human frame, than a man whose body emits a rank smell, whose skin is as black as ink, whose head and face are covered with black wool instead of hair, whose eyes are yellow and bloody, whose lips are thick and blackish, and whose nose is flat? Such are the inhabitants of a very large portion of Africa, and of many islands of Asia. What men can be more imperfect than those who measure no more than four feet in stature, whose faces are long and flat, the nose compressed, the irides yellowish black, the eye-lids turned back towards the temples, the cheeks extraordinarily elevated, their mouths monstrously large, their lips thick and prominent, and the lower part of their visages extremely narrow? Such, according to Count de Buffon, are the Laplanders, the Zemblans, the Borandines, the Samojeds, and Tartars in the East. What objects more deformed than men whose faces are too long and wrinkled even in their youth, their noses thick and compressed,

pressed, their eyes small and sunk, their cheeks very much raised, their upper jaw low, their teeth long and disunited, eye-brows so thick that they shade their eyes; the eye-lids thick, some bristles on their faces instead of beard, large thighs and small legs? Such is the picture Count de Buffon gives of the Tartars; that is, of those people who, as he says, inhabit a tract of land in Asia twelve thousand leagues long and upwards, and more than seven hundred and fifty broad. Amongst these the Calmucks are the most remarkable for their deformity; which is so great, that, according to Tavernier, they are the most brutal men of all the universe. Their faces are so broad that there is a space of five or six inches between their eyes, according as Count de Buffon himself affirms. In Calicut, in Ceylon, and other countries of India, there is, say Pyrrard and other writers on those regions, a race of men who have one or both of their legs as thick as the body of a man; and that this deformity among them is almost hereditary. The Hottentots, besides other gross imperfections, have that monstrous irregularity attending them, of a callous appendage extending from the os pubis downwards, according to the testimony of the historians of the Cape of Good Hope. Strays, Gemelli, and other travellers, affirm, that in the kingdom of Lambry, in the islands of Formosa, and of Mindoro, men have been found with tails. Bommare says, that a thing of this kind in men is nothing else than an elongation of the os coccygis; but what is a tail in quadrupeds but the elongation of that bone, though divided into distinct articulations? However it may be, it is certain, that that elongation renders those Asiatics fully as irregular as if it were a real tail.

If we were, in like manner, to go through the nations of Asia, and Africa, we should hardly find any extensive country where the colour of men is not darker, where there are not stronger irregularities observed, and grosser defects to be found in them, than M. de Paw finds fault with in the Americans. The colour

of the latter is a good deal clearer than that of almost all the Africans and the inhabitants of southern Asia. Even their alleged scantiness of beard is common to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, and of all the Indian Archipelago, to the famous Chinese, Japanese, Tartars, and many other nations of the Old Continent. The imperfections of the Americans, however great they may be represented to be, are certainly not comparable with the defects of that immense people, whose character we have sketched, and others whom we omit.

M. de Paw represents the Americans to be a feeble and diseased set of nations; and, in order to demonstrate the weakness and disorder of their physical constitution, adduces several proofs equally ridiculous and ill founded, and which it will not be expected we should enumerate. He alleges, among other particulars, that they were overcome in wrestling by all the Europeans, and that they sunk under a moderate burden; that by a computation made, two hundred thousand Americans were found to have perished in one year from carrying of baggage. With respect to the first point, the Abbé Clavigero observes, it would be necessary that the experiment of wrestling was made between many individuals of each continent, and that the victory should be attested by the Americans as well as the Europeans. It is not, however, meant to insist, that the Americans are stronger than the Europeans. They may be less strong, without the human species having degenerated in them. The Swiss are stronger than the Italians; and still we do not believe the Italians are degenerated, nor do we tax the climate of Italy. The instance of two hundred thousand Americans having died in one year, under the weight of baggage, were it true, would not convince us so much of the weakness of the Americans, as of the inhumanity of the Europeans. In the same manner that those two hundred thousand Americans perished, two hundred thousand Prussians would also have perished, had they been obliged to make a journey of between three  
hundred



hundred and four hundred miles, with one hundred pounds of burden upon their backs; if they had collars of iron about their necks, and were obliged to carry that load over rocks and mountains; if those who became exhausted with fatigue, or wounded their feet so as to impede their progress, had their heads cut off that they might not retard the pace of the rest; and if they were not allowed but a small morsel of bread to enable them to support so severe a toil. Las Casas, from whom M. de Paw got the account of the two hundred thousand Americans who died under the fatigue of carrying baggage, relates also all the above-mentioned circumstances. If that author therefore is to be credited in the last, he is also to be credited in the first. But a philosopher who vaunts the physical and moral qualities of Europeans over those of the Americans, would have done better, we think, to have suppressed facts so opprobrious to the Europeans themselves.

Nothing in fact demonstrates so clearly the robustness of the Americans as those various and lasting fatigues in which they are continually engaged. M. de Paw says, that, when the New World was discovered, nothing was to be seen but thick woods; that at present there are some lands cultivated, not by the Americans, however, but by the Africans and Europeans; and that the soil in cultivation is to the soil which is uncultivated as 2000 to 2,000,000. These three assertions the abbé demonstrates to be precisely as many errors. Since the conquest, the Americans alone have been the people who have supported all the fatigues of agriculture in all the vast countries of the continent of South America, and in the greater part of those of South America subject to the crown of Spain. No European is ever to be seen employed in the labours of the field. The Moors, who, in comparison of the Americans, are very few in number in the kingdom of New Spain, are charged with the culture of the sugarcane and tobacco, and the making of sugar; but the soil destined for the

cultivation of those plants is not with respect to all the cultivated land of that country in the proportion of one to two thousand. The Americans are the people who labour on the soil. They are the tillers, the sowers, the weeder, and the reapers, of the wheat, of the maize, of the rice, of the beans, and other kinds of grain and pulse, of the cacao, of the vanilla, of the cotton, of the indigo, and all other plants useful to the sustenance, the clothing, and commerce, of those provinces; and without them so little can be done, that in the year 1762 the harvest of wheat was abandoned in many places on account of a sickness which prevailed and prevented the Indians from reaping it. But this is not all; the Americans are they who cut and transport all the necessary timber from the woods; who cut, transport, and work, the stones; who make lime, plaster, and tiles; who construct all the buildings of that kingdom, except a few places where none of them inhabit; who open and repair all the roads, who make the canals and sluices, and clean the cities. They work in many mines of gold, of silver, of copper, &c. they are the shepherds, herdsmen, weavers, potters, basket-makers, bakers, couriers, day-labourers, &c. in a word, they are the persons who bear all the burden of public labours. These, says our justly-indignant author, are the employments of the weak, dastardly, and useless, Americans; while the vigorous M. de Paw, and other indefatigable Europeans, are occupied in writing invectives against them.

These labours, in which the Indians are continually employed, certainly attest their healthiness and strength; for, if they are able to undergo such fatigues, they cannot be diseased, nor have an exhausted stream of blood in their veins, as M. de Paw insinuates. In order to make it believed that their constitutions are vitiated, he copies whatever he finds written by historians of America, whether true or false, respecting the diseases which reign in some particular countries of that great continent. It is not to be denied, that in some

countries in the wide compass of America, men are exposed more than elsewhere to the distempers which are occasioned by the intemperature of the air, or the pernicious quality of the aliments; but it is certain, according to the assertion of many respectable authors acquainted with the New World, that the American countries are, for the most part, healthy; and if the Americans were disposed to retaliate on M. de Paw, and other European authors who write as he does, they would have abundant subject of materials to throw discredit on the clime of the Old Continent, and the constitution of its inhabitants, in the endemic distempers which prevail there.

Lastly, The supposed feebleness and unsound bodily habit of the Americans do not correspond with the length of their lives. Among those Americans whose great fatigues and excessive toils do not anticipate their death, there are not a few who reach the age of eighty, ninety, and one hundred or more years, as formerly mentioned; and what is more, without there being observed in them that decay which time commonly produces in the hair, in the teeth, in the skin, and in the muscles, of the human body. This phenomenon, so much admired by the Spaniards who reside in Mexico, cannot be ascribed to any other cause than the vigour of their constitutions, the temperance of their diet, and the salubrity of their clime. Historians, and other persons who have sojourned there for many years, report the same thing of other countries of the New World.

As to the mental qualities of the Americans, M. de Paw has not been able to discover any other characters than a memory so feeble, that to-day they do not remember what they did yesterday; a capacity so blunt, that they are incapable of thinking, or putting their ideas in order; a disposition so cold, that they feel no excitement of love; a dastardly spirit, and a genius that is torpid and indolent. Many other Europeans, indeed, and what is still more wonderful, many of those children or descendants of Europeans who are born

in America, think as M. de Paw does; some from ignorance, some from want of reflection, and others from hereditary prejudice and prepossession. But all this and more would not be sufficient to invalidate the testimonies of other Europeans, whose authority has a great deal more weight, both because they were men of great judgment, learning, and knowledge of these countries, and because they gave their testimony in favour of strangers against their own countrymen. In particular, Acofta, whose natural and moral history even de Paw commends as an excellent work, employs the whole sixth book in demonstrating the good sense of the Americans by an explanation of their ancient government, their laws, their histories in paintings and knots, calendars, &c. M. de Paw thinks the Americans are bestial; Acofta, on the other hand, reputes those persons weak and presumptuous who think them so. M. de Paw says, that the most acute Americans were inferior in industry and sagacity to the rudest nations of the Old Continent; Acofta extols the civil government of the Mexicans above many republics of Europe. M. de Paw finds, in the moral and political conduct of the Americans, nothing but barbarity, extravagance, and brutality; and Acofta finds there, laws that are admirable and worthy of being preserved for ever.

M. de Paw denies them courage, and alleges the conquest of Mexico as a proof of their cowardice: "Cortes (he says) conquered the empire of Mexico with four hundred and fifty vagabonds and fifteen horses, badly armed; his miserable artillery of only six falconets would not at the present day be capable of exciting the fears of a fortress defended by invalids. During his absence the capital was held in awe by the half of his troops. What men! what events! —It is confirmed by the depositions of all historians, that the Spaniards entered the first time into Mexico without making one single discharge of their artillery. If the title of hero is applicable to him who has the disgrace to occasion the death of a  
great



great number of rational animals, Ferdinand Cortes might pretend to it; otherwise I do not see what true glory he has acquired by the overthrow of a tottering monarchy, which might have been destroyed in the same manner by any other assassin of our continent." These passages indicate either M. de Paw's ignorance of the history of the conquest of Mexico, or a wilful suppression of what would openly contradict his system; since all who have read that history know well, that the conquest of Mexico was not made with four hundred and fifty men, but with more than two hundred thousand. Cortes himself, to whom it was of more importance than to M. de Paw to make his bravery conspicuous, and his conquest appear glorious, confesses the excessive number of the allies who were under his command at the siege of the capital, and combated with more fury against the Mexicans than the Spaniards themselves. According to the account which Cortes gave to the emperor Charles V. the siege of Mexico began with eighty-seven horses, eight hundred and forty-eight Spanish infantry, armed with guns, cross-bows, swords, and lances, and upwards of seventy-five thousand allies, of Tlascalala, Huexotzinco, Cholula, and Chalco, equipped with various sorts of arms; with three large pieces of cannon of iron, fifteen small of copper, and thirteen brigantines. In the course of the siege were assembled the numerous nations of the Otomies, the Coahuixcas, and Matlazincas, and the troops of the populous cities of the lakes; so that the army of the besiegers not only exceeded two hundred thousand, but amounted to four million, according to the letter from Cortes; and besides these, three thousand boats and canoes came to their assistance. Did it betray cowardice to have sustained, for full seventy-five days, the siege of an open city, engaging daily with an army so large, and in part provided with arms so superior, and at the same time having to withstand the ravages of famine? Can they merit the charge of cowardice, who, after having lost seven of the eight parts of their city, and

about fifty thousand citizens, part cut off by the sword, part by famine and sickness, continued to defend themselves until they were furiously assaulted in the last hold which was left them?

According to M. de Paw, "the Americans at first were not believed to be men, but rather satyrs, or large apes, which might be murdered without remorse or reproach. At last, in order to add insult to the oppression of those times, a pope made an original bull, in which he declared, that, being desirous of founding bishoprics in the richest countries of America, it pleased him and the Holy Spirit to acknowledge the Americans to be true men: in so far, that without this decision of an Italian the inhabitants of the New World would have appeared, even at this day, to the eyes of the faithful, a race of equivocal men. There is no example of such a decision since this globe has been inhabited by men and apes." Upon this passage the abbé animadverts, as being a singular instance of calumny and misrepresentation; and gives the following history of the decision alluded to.

"Some of the first Europeans who established themselves in America, not less powerful than avaricious, desirous of enriching themselves to the detriment of the Americans, kept them continually employed, and made use of them as slaves; and in order to avoid the reproaches which were made them by the bishops and missionaries who inculcated humanity, and the giving liberty to those people to get themselves instructed in religion, that they might do their duties towards the church and their families, alleged, that the Indians were by nature slaves and incapable of being instructed; and many other falsehoods of which the Chronicler Herrera makes mention against them. Those zealous ecclesiastics being unable, either by their authority or preaching, to free those unhappy converts from the tyranny of such misers, had recourse to the Catholic kings, and at last obtained from their justice and clemency, those laws, as favourable to the Americans as honourable

to the court of Spain, that compose the Indian code, which were chiefly due to the indefatigable zeal of the Bishop de las Casas. On another side, Garces bishop of Tlascala, knowing that those Spaniards bore, notwithstanding their perversity, a great respect to the decisions of the vicar of Jesus Christ, made application in the year 1586 to Pope Paul III. by that famous letter of which we have made mention; representing to him the evils which the Indians suffered from the wicked Christians, and praying him to interpose his authority in their behalf. The pope, moved by such heavy remonstrances, dispatched the next year the original bull, of which such particular mention has been made before, which was not made, as is manifest, to declare the Americans true men; for such a piece of weakness was very distant from that or any other pope; but solely to support the natural rights of the Americans against the attempts of their oppressors, and to condemn the injustice and inhumanity of those, who, under the pretence of supposing those people idolatrous, or incapable of being instructed, took from them their property and their liberty, and treated them as slaves and beasts.

If at first the Americans were esteemed satyrs, nobody can better prove it than Christopher Columbus their discoverer. Let us hear, therefore, how that celebrated admiral speaks, in his account to the Catholic monarchs Ferdinand and Isabella, of the first satyrs he saw in the islands of Haiti, or Hispaniola: "I swear," he says, "to your majesties, that there is not a better people in the world than these, more affectionate, affable, or mild. They love their neighbours as themselves: their language is the sweetest, the softest, and the most cheerful; for they always speak smiling; and, although they go naked, let your majesties believe me, their customs are very becoming; and their king, who is served with great majesty, has such engaging manners, that it gives great pleasure to see him, and also to consider the great retentive faculty of that people, and their desire of knowledge, which incites

them to ask the causes and the effects of things."

"We have had intimate commerce with the Americans (continues the abbé;) have lived for some years in a seminary destined for their instruction; saw the erection and progress of the royal college of Gaudaloupe, founded in Mexico, by a Mexican Jesuit, for the education of Indian children; had afterwards some Indians amongst our pupils; had particular knowledge of many American rectors, many nobles, and numerous artists; attentively observed their character, their genius, their disposition, and manner of thinking; and have examined besides, with the utmost diligence, their ancient history, their religion, their government, their laws, and their customs. After such long experience and study of them, from which we imagine ourselves enabled to decide without danger of erring, we declare to M. de Paw, and to all Europe, that the mental qualities of the Americans are not in the least inferior to those of the Europeans; that they are capable of all, even the most abstract sciences; and that if equal care was taken of their education, if they were brought up from childhood in seminaries under good masters, were protected and stimulated by rewards, we should see rise among the Americans, philosophers, mathematicians, and divines, who would rival the first in Europe."

But although we should suppose, that, in the torrid climates of the New World, as well as in those of the Old, especially under the additional depression of slavery, there was an inferiority of the mental powers, the Chilese and the North Americans have discovered higher rudiments of human excellence and ingenuity than have ever been known among tribes in a similar state of society in any part of the world.

M. de Paw affirms, that the Americans were unacquainted with the use of money, and quotes the following well-known passage from Montesquieu: "Imagine to yourself, that, by some accident, you are placed in an unknown country; if you find money there, do not doubt that you are



are arrived among a polished people." But, if by money we are to understand a piece of metal with the stamp of the prince or the public, the want of it in a nation is no token of barbarity. The Athenians employed oxen for money, as the Romans did sheep. The Romans had no coined money till the time of Servius Tullius, nor the Persians until the reign of Darius Hystaspes. But, if by money is understood a sign representing the value of merchandise, the Mexicans, and other nations of Anahuac, employed money in their commerce. The cacao, of which they made constant use in the market to purchase whatever they wanted, was employed for this purpose, as salt is in Abyssinia.

It has been affirmed, that stone-bridges were unknown in America when it was first discovered; and that the natives did not know how to form arches. But these assertions are erroneous. The remains of the ancient palaces of Tezcuco, and still more their vapour-baths, shew the ancient use of arches and vaults among the Mexicans. But the ignorance of this art would have been no proof of barbarity. Neither the Egyptians nor Babylonians understood the construction of arches.

M. de Paw affirms, that the palace of Montezuma was nothing else than a hut. But it is certain, from the affirmation of all the historians of Mexico, that the army under Cortes, consisting of six thousand four hundred men, were all lodged in the palace; and there remained still sufficient room for Montezuma and his attendants.

The advances which the Mexicans had made in the study of astronomy is perhaps the most surprising proof of their attention and sagacity; for it appears from Abbé Clavigero's history, that they not only counted three hundred sixty-five days to the year, but also knew of the excess of about six hours in the solar over the civil year, and remedied the difference by means of intercalary days.

Of American morality, the following exhortation of a Mexican to his son may serve as a specimen:

"My son, who art come into the light from the womb of thy mother like a chicken from the egg, and like it art preparing to fly through the world, we know not how long Heaven will grant to us the enjoyment of that precious gem which we possess in thee; but, however short the period, endeavour to live exactly, praying God continually to assist thee. He created thee: thou art his property. He is thy father, and loves thee still more than I do: repose in him thy thoughts, and day and night direct thy sighs to him. Reverence and salute thy elders, and hold no one in contempt. To the poor and distressed be not dumb, but rather use words of comfort. Honour all persons, particularly thy parents, to whom thou owest obedience, respect, and service. Guard against imitating the example of those wicked sons, who, like brutes that are deprived of reason, neither reverence their parents, listen to their instruction, nor submit to their correction; because whoever follows their steps will have an unhappy end, will die in a desperate or sudden manner, or will be killed and devoured by wild beasts.

"Mock not, my son, the aged or the imperfect. Scorn not him whom you see fall into some folly or transgression, nor make him reproaches; but restrain thyself, and beware lest thou fall into the same error which offends thee in another. Go not where thou art not called, nor interfere in that which does not concern thee. Endeavour to manifest thy good breeding in all thy words and actions. In conversation, do not lay thy hands upon another, nor speak too much, nor interrupt or disturb another's discourse. When any one discourses with thee, hear him attentively, and hold thyself in an easy attitude, neither playing with thy feet, nor putting thy mantle to thy mouth, nor spitting too often, nor looking about you here and there, nor rising up frequently, if thou art sitting; for such actions are indications of levity and low-breeding."—He proceeds to mention several particular vices which are to be avoided, and concludes,—  
"Steal not, nor give thyself

thyself to gaming; otherwise thou wilt be a disgrace to thy parents, whom thou oughtest rather to honour for the education they have given thee. If thou wilt be virtuous, thy example will put the wicked to shame. No more, my son; enough hath been said in discharge of the duties of a father. With these counsels I wish to fortify thy mind. Refuse them not, nor act in contradiction to them; for on them thy life and all thy happiness depend."

As ranging on the same side with the Abbé Clavigero, the ingenious Mr. Jefferson deserves particular attention. This gentleman, in his *Notes on the State of Virginia*, &c. has taken occasion to combat the opinions of Buffon; and seems to have fully refuted them both by argument and facts.

Of the human inhabitants of America, M. Buffon gives the following description:—"Though the American savage be nearly of the same stature with men in polished societies; yet this is not a sufficient exception to the general contraction of animated Nature throughout the whole continent. In the savage, the organs of generation are small and feeble. He has no hair, no beard, no ardour for the female. Though nimbler than the European, because more accustomed to running, his strength is not so great. His sensations are less acute; and yet he is more timid and cowardly. He has no vivacity, no activity of mind. The activity of his body is not so much an exercise or spontaneous motion, as a necessary action produced by want. Destroy his appetite for victuals and drink, and you will at once annihilate the active principle of all his movements: He remains in stupid repose, on his limbs or couch, for whole days. It is easy to discover the cause of the scattered life of savages, and of their estrangement from society. They have been refused the most precious spark of Nature's fire:—They have no ardour for women, and, of course, no love to mankind. Unacquainted with the most lively and most tender of all attachments, their other sensations of this nature are cold and

languid. Their love to parents and children is extremely weak. The bonds of the most intimate of all societies, that of the same family, are feeble; and one family has no attachment to another. Hence no union, no republic, no social state, can take place among them. The physical cause of love gives rise to the morality of their manners. Their heart is frozen, their society cold, and their empire cruel. They regard their females as servants destined to labour, or as beasts of burden, whom they load unmercifully with the produce of their hunting, and oblige, without pity or gratitude, to perform labours which often exceed their strength. They have few children, and pay little attention to them. Every thing must be referred to the first cause:—They are indifferent, because they are weak; and this indifference to the sex is the original stain which disgraces Nature, prevents her from expanding, and, by destroying the germs of life, cuts the root of society. Hence man makes no exception to what has been advanced. Nature, by denying him the faculty of love, has abused and contracted him more than any other animal."

A humiliating picture indeed! but than which, Mr. Jefferson assures us, never was one more unlike the original. M. Buffon grants, that their stature is the same as that of the men of Europe; and he might have admitted, that the Iroquois were larger, and the Lenopi or Delawares taller, than people in Europe generally are:—But he says their organs of generation are smaller and weaker than those of Europeans; which is not a fact. And, as to their want of beard, this error has been already noticed.

"They have no ardour for their female."—It is true, they do not indulge those excesses, nor discover that fondness, which are customary in Europe; but this is not owing to a defect in nature, but to manners. Their soul is wholly bent upon war. This is what procures them glory among the men, and makes them the admiration of the women. To this they are educated from their earliest youth. When they pursue game with



with ardour, when they bear the fatigues of the chase, when they sustain and suffer patiently hunger and cold, it is not so much for the sake of the game they pursue, as to convince their parents and the council of the nation, that they are fit to be inrolled in the number of the warriors. The songs of the women, the dance of the warriors, the sage counsel of the chiefs, the tales of the old, the triumphal entry of the warriors returned with success from battle, and the respect paid to those who distinguish themselves in battle, and in subduing their enemies, in short, every thing they see or hear, tends to inspire them with an ardent desire for military fame. If a young man were to discover a fondness for women before he has been to war, he would become the contempt of the men, and the scorn and ridicule of the women: or were he to indulge himself with a captive taken in war, and much more were he to offer violence in order to gratify his lust, he would incur indelible disgrace. The seeming frigidity of the men, therefore, is the effect of manners, and not a defect of nature. They are neither more defective in ardour, nor more impotent with the female, than are the whites reduced to the same diet and exercise.

"They raise few children."—They indeed raise fewer children than we do; the causes of which are to be found, not in a difference of nature, but of circumstance. The women very frequently attending the men in their parties of war and of hunting, child-bearing becomes extremely inconvenient to them. It is said, therefore, that they have learned the practice of procuring abortion by the use of some vegetable; and that it even extends to prevent conception for a considerable time after. During these parties they are exposed to numerous hazards, to excessive exertions, to the greatest extremities of hunger. Even at their homes, the nation depends for food, through a certain part of every year, on the gleanings of the forest; that is, they experience a famine once in every year. With all animals, if the female

be badly fed, or not fed at all, her young perish; and, if both male and female be reduced to like want, generation becomes less active, less productive. To the obstacles, then, of want and hazard, which Nature has opposed to the multiplication of wild animals, for the purpose of restraining their numbers within certain bounds, those of labour and of voluntary abortion are added with the Indian. No wonder, then, if they multiply less than we do. Where food is regularly supplied, a single farm will shew more of cattle than a whole country of forests can of buffaloes. The same Indian women, when married to white traders, who feed them and their children plentifully and regularly, who exempt them from excessive drudgery, who keep them stationary and unexposed to accident, produce and raise as many children as the white women. Instances are known, under these circumstances, of their rearing a dozen children.

Neither do they seem to be "deficient in natural affection." On the contrary, their sensibility is keen, even the warriors weeping most bitterly on the loss of their children; though in general they endeavour to appear superior to human events.

Their friendships are strong, and faithful to the uttermost extremity. A remarkable instance of this appeared in the case of the late Colonel Byrd, who was sent to the Cherokee nation to transact some business with them. It happened that some of our disorderly people had just killed one or two of that nation. It was therefore proposed in the council of the Cherokees, that Col. Byrd should be put to death, in revenge for the loss of their countrymen. Among them was a chief, called Silhouette, who, on some former occasion, had contracted an acquaintance and friendship with Col. Byrd. He came to him every night in his tent, and told him not to be afraid, they should not kill him. After many days deliberation, however, the determination was, contrary to Silhouette's expectation, that Byrd should be put to death, and some warriors were dispatched as executioners. Silhouette attended them; and,

and, when they entered the tent, he threw himself between them and Byrd, and said to the warriors, "This man is my friend: before you get at him, you must kill me." On which they returned; and the council respected the principle so much as to recede from their determination.

That "they are timorous and cowardly," is a character with which there is little reason to charge them, when we recollect the manner in which the Iroquois met *Monsieur*, who marched into their country; in which the old men, who scorned to fly, or to survive the capture of their town, braved death like the old Romans in the time of the Gauls, and in which they soon after revenged themselves by sacking and destroying Montreal. In short, the Indian is brave, when an enterprise depends on bravery; education with him making the point of honour consist in the destruction of an enemy by stratagem, and in the preservation of his own person free from injury: or perhaps this is nature, while it is education which teaches us to honour force more than finess. He will defend himself against an host of enemies, always choosing to be killed rather than to surrender, though it be to the whites, who he knows will treat him well. In other situations, also,

he meets death with more deliberation, and endures tortures with a firmness unknown almost to religious enthusiasm among us.

Much less are they to be characterised as a people of no vivacity, and who are excited to action or motion only by the calls of hunger and thirst. Their dances, in which they so much delight, and which to an European would be the most severe exercise, fully contradict this; not to mention their fatiguing marches, and the toil they voluntarily and cheerfully undergo in their military expeditions. It is true, that when at home they do not employ themselves in labour or the culture of the soil: but this, again, is the effect of customs and manners which have assigned that to the province of the women. But it is said, "they are averse to society and a social life." Can any thing be more inapplicable than this to a people who always live in towns or in clans? Or can they be said to have no *republique*, who conduct all their affairs in national councils; who pride themselves in their national character; who consider an insult or injury done to an individual by a stranger as done to the whole, and resent it accordingly?

[To be continued.]

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### CONSTANCY AND HEROISM OF THE FEMALE CHARACTER.

**A**LTHOUGH delicacy and tenderness be the most amiable ornaments of the female character, and are those properties which more immediately insure our veneration, and command our love; yet is not fortitude in the hour of trial, nor courage in that of danger, to be exempted from their other virtues.

The devotion of women towards the objects of their duty and affection has been carried, in many cases, to such extremes of sensibility, that the weakness of their natures has been forgotten in the day of trouble, and when the body would have sunk had it not been supported by the vigour of the mind.

How often have these amiable examples of parental affection and connubial love hung over the bed of sickness, for weary days and sleepless nights, without the sigh of impatience, or the murmur of complaint! The victims of sentiment, and absorbed by duty, how frequently do they testify their attachment, although, perhaps, to an unfeeling and ungrateful object, when their reward, alas! happens to be insulting language, and a breaking heart! How distressing is it to see them steal aside to wipe away, in private, those tears, which, if publicly encouraged to flow, would strike with contrition and shame the unworthy partaker of their cares!

Tender



Tender to excess, when tenderness is a duty, and undaunted to the extreme, when courage becomes a virtue, we see them collected in danger, patient of cold, of hunger, and fatigue; content to share the stoney pillow or the noisome draught—to despise the howling wind, the beating rain, or the lashing furge—provided only they can soften misery, and prove their love.

In those trying and eventful moments of life, when the balanced mind requires a counsellor to fix its resolution, and a friend to point out, and to shew by example, the necessity of fortitude; how often have women exhibited, upon those occasions, instances of courage the most heroic, of resignation the most philosophical, and of a contempt of death, to be admired, at least, if not imitated! and of this position we have many vouchers in the annals of ancient history, as well as in the occurrences of our own.

The life and death of Portia, one of the most illustrious, as well as one of the most virtuous and accomplished, of the Roman matrons, afford a very prominent, and, if I may be allowed the expression, a very striking example of the intrepid despondency of a female mind, which shares in, and is determined to partake of, the misfortunes of disappointed and heroic love. The daughter of Cato, the most renowned of the senators of Rome for austerity of manners and integrity of heart; she seemed to have derived from the paternal source the dignity of a more than female deportment in life, and of a more than manly fortitude in death: and the means that she employed to rid herself of a painful existence were unprecedented for their application and effect. So soon as she heard of the overthrow and fate of her beloved Brutus, she swallowed the burning coal; as if the excess of her virtue could only be measured by the extremity of her suffering.

There are but few characters in history that excite the feelings of the reader so much as the unhappy fortune of Agrippina, the illustrious widow of the great Germanicus. A

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peculiar tenderness of sentiment is always found to accompany her name; and the eye seems to droop with compassion, and the soul to melt with pity, whenever this virtuous and amiable mourner is brought to remembrance, and bears, with a feeble step and a dejected look, the urn that contains the ashes of her lamented husband: a subject that has always been a particular favourite with the lovers of painting, and which will ever strike and interest the mind of sensibility, so long as the pen can immortalize, or the pencil charm.

The fortitude of Arria has been recorded on marble, and adds, not indeed an amiable example, but a stubborn proof, of the undaunted vigour of the female mind.

Pætus, the husband of Arria, was a favourite of Nero, and to whom he confided a secret of importance, with a strict injunction that he should not communicate to any person whatever the nature of its contents; but so singular an affection did he bear to his wife, that he could not help committing to her breast the particulars with which he was instructed; but he soon had occasion to repent of his indiscretion, and her life, as well as his own, became the victim of her imprudence and breach of trust.

While the one was lamenting in prison the abuse of confidence, and the weakness of love, and in momentary expectation of an ignominious and a painful death, the other found an opportunity to introduce herself into his presence, and with a dagger, which she had hitherto concealed, she inflicted in her breast a deadly wound, and then, drawing out the fatal instrument, she presented the point to her husband, and accompanied it with these memorable words: "The point to me is soft, but the wound that it will occasion thee is truly painful."

This kind of fortitude, resulting from despair, is unamiable if not disgusting in itself, and partakes more of ferocity, than of that patient firmness, and affecting resolution, of which many bright examples may be given in the English history.

When Prince Edward was wounded by a poisoned arrow from the hand of a Saracen,

Saracen, in the time of the crusades, his wife, the beautiful Eleanor, with signal love and pious hazard, applied her balmy lips to attract the venom it had left; an instance of affection and fortitude without a rival, and which danger could be only justified by the transcendent merit of the object for whom it was incurred.

The conduct of Margaret of Anjou, after the defeat of the Sixth Henry at the battle of Hexham, presents a noble instance of female heroism; as the field of combat was at too great a distance from the Scottish territories to permit the Lancastrians to retreat with safety, and as the country abounded with mountains and woods, they were not only annoyed, but frequently captured, by the enemy. The queen, in her flight with the prince, betrayed by the splendour of dress, was surrounded and taken by a party of banditti; but, while they were disputing about the spoil, she made an escape, and had not proceeded far before she was again met by a single robber; when, collecting all her fortitude, she advanced towards him, saying, "Here, friend, protect thy prince." The man, struck with awe, instantly obeyed the mandate, and conducted his royal charge to a village adjoining to the sea, from which they passed into the dominions of the Duke of Burgundy in Holland.

Many other instances of tenderness and fortitude, produced by instinctive or acquired love, might be adduced to the honour of the female character,

in the exalted situations of life: and even in the more humble and neglected habits of society, the affection and attachment of women, although surrounded by distress and misery, have not been without the excitements of applause and imitation; for virtue is often concealed by rags, and greatness of soul confined by want of action.

Do we not frequently observe these amiable ornaments of human nature, these refiners of our pleasures and amenders of our hearts, whose tenderness softens the rigour, and whose fortitude instructs us to bear the rebuffs, of life;—do we not frequently see these angelic consolers watch over, with care and perseverance, the bodily sufferings; and endeavour, by the eloquence of tears, and the energy of words, to divert the merited afflictions of a worthless husband, a cruel parent, or a profligate and ungrateful son!

However painful the knowledge of infidelity and the abuse of tenderness may be, yet is there an unspeakable comfort to be derived from the willing performance of moral duties, be the objects of them ever so undeserving of regard: and he who can affix a general censure of inhumanity, or want of sentiment, upon that sex, from whom our principal comforts in life are derived, ought to live for ever exempted from those delights, which a rational intercourse of thoughts, and a confidence of mind, in an union of love and virtue, can alone produce, substantiate, and ensure.

#### THE BASHFUL MAN.—TO THE EDITOR.

**I** LABOUR under a species of distress, which I fear will at length drive me utterly from that society in which I am most ambitious to appear; but I will give you a short sketch of my origin and present situation, by which you will be enabled to judge of my difficulties.

My father was a farmer of no great property, and with no other learning than what he had acquired at a charity-school; but my mother being dead, and I an only child, he determined to give me that advantage,

which he fancied would have made him happy, viz. a learned education.—I was sent to a country grammar-school, and from thence to the university, with a view of qualifying for holy orders. Here, having but small allowance from my father, and being naturally of a timid and bashful disposition, I had no opportunity of rubbing off that native awkwardness, which is the fatal cause of all my unhappiness, and which I now begin to fear can never be amended. You must know that in my person I am tall  
and



and thin, with a fair complexion, and light flaxen hair; but of such extreme susceptibility of shame, that, on the smallest subject of confusion, my blood all rushes into my cheeks, and I appear a perfect full-blown rose. The consciousness of this unhappy failing made me avoid society, and I became enamoured of a college life; particularly when I reflected, that the uncouth manners of my father's family were little calculated to improve my outward conduct; I therefore had resolved on living at the university and taking pupils, when two unexpected events greatly altered the posture of my affairs, viz. my father's death and the arrival of an uncle from the Indies.

This uncle I had very rarely heard my father mention, and it was generally believed that he was long since dead, when he arrived in England only a week too late to close his brother's eyes. I am ashamed to confess, what I believe has been often experienced by those whose education has been better than their parents', that my poor father's ignorance, and vulgar language, had often made me blush to think I was his son; and at his death I was not inconsolable for the loss of that which I was not unfrequently ashamed to own. My uncle was but little affected, for he had been separated from his brother more than thirty years, and in that time had acquired a fortune which he used to brag would make a nabob happy; in short, he had brought over with him the enormous sum of thirty thousand pounds, and upon this he built his hopes of never-ending happiness. While he was planning schemes of greatness and delight, whether the change of climate might affect him, or what other cause I know not, but he was snatched from all his dreams of joy by a short illness, of which he died, leaving me heir to all his property. And now, sir, behold me at the age of twenty-five, well stocked with Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, possessed of an ample fortune, but so awkward and unversed in every gentleman-like accomplishment, that I am pointed at by all who see me, as the wealthy learned clown.

I have lately purchased an estate in the country, which abounds in (what is called) a fashionable neighbourhood; and, when you reflect on my parentage and uncouth manner, you will hardly think how much my company is courted by the surrounding families, (especially by those who have marriageable daughters:) from these gentlemen I have received familiar calls, and the most pressing invitations, and, though I wished to accept their offered friendship, I have repeatedly excused myself under the pretence of not being quite settled; for the truth is, that when I have rode or walked, with full intention to return their several visits, my heart has failed me as I approached their gates, and I have frequently returned homeward, resolving to try again to-morrow.

However, I at length determined to conquer my timidity, and three days ago, accepted of an invitation to dine this day with one, whose open easy manner left me no room to doubt a cordial welcome. Sir Thomas Friendly, who lives about two miles distant, is a baronet, with about two thousand pounds a year estate, joining to that I purchased; he has two sons, and five daughters, all grown up, and living with their mother and a maiden sister of Sir Thomas's, at Friendly-hall, dependent on their father. Conscious of my unpolished gait, I have for some time past, taken private lessons of a professor, who teaches "grown gentlemen to dance;" and, though I at first found wonderful difficulty in the art he taught, my knowledge of the mathematics was of prodigious use, in teaching me the equilibrium of my body, and the due adjustment of the centre of gravity to the five positions. Having now acquired the art of walking without tottering, and learned to make a bow, I boldly ventured to obey the baronet's invitation to a family dinner, not doubting but my new acquirements would enable me to see the ladies with tolerable intrepidity: but alas! how vain are all the hopes of theory, when unsupported by habitual practice! As I approached the house, a dinner-bell alarmed my fears, left I

had spoiled the dinner by want of punctuality; impressed with this idea, I blushed the deepest crimson, as my name was repeatedly announced by the several livery servants, who ushered me into the library, hardly knowing what or whom I saw; at my first entrance, I summoned all my fortitude, and made my new-learned bow to Lady Friendly, but unfortunately, in bringing back my left foot to the third position, I trod upon the gouty toe of poor Sir Thomas, who had followed close at my heels, to be the nomenclator of the family. The confusion this occasioned in me is hardly to be conceived, since none but bashful men can judge of my distress, and of that description the number I believe is very small. The baronet's politeness by degrees dissipated my concern, and I was astonished to see how far good-breeding could enable him to suppress his feelings, and to appear with perfect ease, after so painful an accident.

The cheerfulness of her ladyship, and the familiar chat of the young ladies, insensibly led me to throw off my reserve and sheepishness, till at length I ventured to join in conversation, and even to start fresh subjects. The library being richly furnished with books in elegant bindings, I conceived Sir Thomas to be a man of literature, and ventured to give my opinion concerning the several editions of the Greek classics, in which the baronet's opinion exactly coincided with my own. To this subject I was led, by observing an edition of Xenophon in sixteen volumes, which (as I had never before heard of such a thing) greatly excited my curiosity, and I rose up to examine what it could be: Sir Thomas saw what I was about, and (as I suppose) willing to save me trouble, rose to take down the book, which made me more eager to prevent him, and, hastily laying my hand on the first volume, I pulled it forcibly; but lo! instead of books, a board, which by leather and gilding had been made to look like sixteen volumes, came tumbling down, and unluckily pitched upon a Wedgwood ink-stand on the table under it. In vain did Sir Thomas assure me, there

was no harm; I saw the ink streaming from an inlaid table on the Turkey carpet, and, scarcely knowing what I did, attempted to stop its progress with my cambric handkerchief. In the height this confusion, we were informed that dinner was served up, and I with joy perceived that the bell, which at first had so alarmed my fears, was only the half-hour dinner-bell.

In walking through the hall, and suite of apartments to the dining-room, I had time to collect my scattered senses, and was desired to take my seat betwixt Lady Friendly and her eldest daughter at the table. Since the fall of the wooden Xenophon, my face had been continually burning like a firebrand, and I was just beginning to recover myself, and to feel comfortably cool, when an unlooked-for accident, rekindled all my heat and blushes. Having set my plate of soup too near the edge of the table, in bowing to Miss Dinah, who politely complimented the pattern of my waistcoat, I tumbled the whole scalding contents into my lap. In spite of an immediate supply of napkins to wipe the surface of my clothes, my black silk breeches were not stout enough to save me from the painful effects of this sudden fomentation, and for some minutes my legs and thighs seemed stewing in a boiling caldron; but recollecting how Sir Tho. had disguised his torture, when I trod upon his toe, I firmly bore my pain in silence, and sat with my lower extremities parboiled, amidst the stifled giggling of the ladies and the servants.

I will not relate the several blunders which I made during the first course, or the distress occasioned by my being desired to carve a fowl, or help to various dishes that stood near me, spilling a sauce-boat, and knocking down a salt-feller; rather let me hasten to the second course, "where fresh disasters overwhelmed me quite."

I had a piece of rich sweet pudding on my fork, when Miss Louisa Friendly begged to trouble me for a pigeon that stood near me; in my haste, scarcely knowing what I did, I whipped the pudding into my mouth,  
hot



hot as a burning coal; it was impossible to conceal my agony, my eyes were starting from their sockets. At last, in spite of shame and resolution, I was obliged to drop the cause of torment on my plate. Sir Thomas and the ladies all compassionated my misfortune, and each advised a different application; one recommended oil, another water, but all agreed that wine was best for drawing out the fire; and a glass of sherry was brought me from the sideboard, which I snatched up with eagerness: but, oh! how shall I tell the sequel! whether the butler by accident mistook, or purposely designed to drive me mad, he gave me the strongest brandy, with which I filled my mouth, already fleaed and blistered; totally unused to every kind of ardent spirits, with my tongue, throat, and palate, as raw as beef, what could I do? I could not swallow; and, clapping my hands upon my mouth, the cursed liquor squirted through my nose and fingers like a fountain, over all the dishes; and I crushed by bursts of laughter from all quarters. In vain did Sir Thomas reprimand the servants, and Lady Friendly chide her daughters; for the measure of my

shame and their diversion was not yet complete. To relieve me from the intolerable state of perspiration, which this accident had caused, without considering what I did, I wiped my face with that ill-fated handkerchief, which was still wet from the consequences of the fall of Xenophon, and covered all my features with streaks of ink in every direction. The baronet himself could not support this shock, but joined his lady in the general laugh; while I sprung from the table in despair, rushed out of the house, and ran home in an agony of confusion and disgrace, which the most poignant sense of guilt could have excited.

Thus, without having deviated from the path of moral rectitude, I am suffering torments like a "goblin damned." The lower half of me has been almost boiled, my tongue and mouth grilled, and I bear the mark of Cain upon my forehead; yet these are but trifling considerations, to the everlasting shame which I must feel, whenever this adventure shall be mentioned; unless by your assistance, when my neighbours know how much I suffer on the occasion, they will spare their revilings, and have some feeling for a bathful man.

#### ANALOGY BETWEEN MENTAL AND BODILY DISEASE.

From a FATHER to his SON at the UNIVERSITY.

IT has been asserted, that every man's way of thinking takes a tinge from his profession or manner of life. Of the truth of this remark I am personally sensible, from the habit I have formed of applying medical ideas to moral subjects. It is, indeed, nothing new to regard all mental vices and defects as so many diseases of that part of our frame; and moralists of all ages have been fond of running comparisons between maladies of the body and the mind. Yet I cannot but think, that something still remains to be done in the practical application of the doctrine; and that it is of importance, both with respect to the successful treatment of mental diseases, and to the preservation of our tranquillity, under a view of

the evils of life, that this resemblance should be strongly impressed on our thoughts.

One consequence would undoubtedly be the result; that we should not expect to cure these disorders by trifling and casual remedies, but should fix our confidence solely on some vigorous plan, consisting mostly in the resolute application of opposites, upon the medical maxim, *contraria contrariorum esse remedia*. It is the want of power or resolution to put in practice this grand principle of the healing art, that renders moral distempers in general so inveterate. What can be relied upon to oppose strong natural inclination, constant example, and confirmed habit, but some agent equally powerful, which shall,

shall, not in the way of persuasion, but by coercive force, be employed to draw over the mind to a contrary state of feeling? Where this can be put in practice, there is no case of moral depravity so desperate as to be without the hope, nay, perhaps, without the certainty, of a cure; where it cannot, the slightest vitiation is hardly to be removed. It is not without experience that I speak in this matter. More than once has it happened to me to be consulted as a friend, on occasion of the discovery of very ruinous tendencies in young persons. In these instances, dissuading all petty expedients, I recommended such a total change of external circumstances, as would of necessity induce to as complete a change of views and habits; and the event justified my advice. That this was a right method, was, indeed, sufficiently obvious; but it might not be so obvious that it was the only right one; at least, parental indulgence is frequently glad to shelter itself under the plausibility of some less decisive mode of proceeding. But to one who has a just notion of the operation of motives upon the mind, it will be very apparent, that as long as those which are induced for the purpose of remedy continue inferior in force to those which nourish the disease, no benefit whatever can be expected from their application. Actions, which we would avert, will either be done, or not be done. They will infallibly be done, if the motives for them preponderate; they will not be done, if the contrary takes place. There is no medium: and such is the power of habit, that every instance, either of yielding or of resisting, favours a similar termination when the trial next occurs. Whence may be demonstratively shewn the weakness of expecting any advantage from the mere repetition of efforts that have already proved unavailing.

You are better acquainted than myself with the scholastic controversies concerning liberty and necessity. I frequently hear them called mere logomachies, and such I am inclined to suppose they are, when carried to their utmost degree of abstraction.

But that they are not entirely without practical effects upon common minds, I am, from observation, convinced; and, in particular, I have no doubt, that the tendency of the popular notions concerning man's free agency, is to inspire too much confidence in the efficacy of the feeble aids to morality, such as precept and argumentation. By those who entertain exalted ideas of the self-determining power of the soul, it is readily conceived, that placing before it an irrefragable syllogism in favour of virtue, can scarcely fail to enable it to resist all the allurements of vice. But the poet could long ago pronounce, "*Video meliora, proboque, deteriora, sequor*;" the true interpretation of which is, that conviction of the understanding is not the strongest motive that can be presented to the human mind.

A person cannot have surveyed mankind with an attentive eye, without perceiving, in many cases, such an irresistible series of causes operating in the formation of character, as must convince him of the actual existence of a moral necessity;—that is, of such an overbearing prepotency of motives tending to one point, that in no one instant of a man's life, could he be supposed capable of a course of action different from that he has really adopted. Pursue an individual belonging to any one of the strongly-marked classes in society, from the cradle to the grave, and see if the process of fixing his character have not been as regular and unalterable as that of his bodily constitution. Take one of those, too frequent in this great metropolis, who may be said to be suckled with vice and infamy, the breed of a prostitute and housebreaker, born and educated in the precincts of St. Giles's. With the first use of language he learns blasphemy and obscenity; his little hands are practised in picking pockets, and his infant understanding in framing tricks and falsehoods. His early pleasures are dram-drinking and debauchery of every species; and, when not roused by appetite or compulsion, he passes away the time in the stupidity of sloth. He sees nothing before him but acts of rapine, cruelty, and brutality.



brutality. Chastisements teach him craft, and inflame his passion for mischief. Not only the duties of religion, and the obligations of virtue, are things utterly beyond his comprehension; but he is a perfect stranger to all the comforts of decent life. Thus, by the all-powerful force of education and habit, he is formed into the character of a ferocious beast; certain to end his life by violence, if it be not sooner cut off by the consequences of intemperance.

This, it will be said, is an extreme case; but even in the opposite rank of society, among those who, as we commonly say, may live as they like, instances may be found of equal subjugation to the law of necessity. Take the heir to a large entailed estate, brought up while a child, in a house distinguished for riotous luxury and irregularity. Let him be nursed in ideas of self-consequence, flattered by obsequious servants, and indulged in every caprice of appetite and passion by weak or negligent parents. Transfer him to a public school, with a large allowance of pocket-money; and thence, when rising to manhood, to some genteel college in an university. Then send him on his travels, accompanied by an ignorant mercenary tutor. Let him make a due stay in every corrupt metropolis in Europe, the resort of his idle countrymen; and finish by studying the town in his own. Lastly, return him with a complete apparatus of guns, horses, and hounds, to his native woods, there to reside the uncontrouled lord of a herd of tenants and dependents, with no other object in life than to take his pleasure and maintain his hereditary sway. Is it in the nature of things possible, that this man should turn out any thing else than a low-minded, brutal, tyrannical, debauchee?

The physician knows, that certain modes of living will infallibly bring on certain diseases, which will descend from parents to children, and can never be extirpated as long as the original causes prevail. The moralist may equally foretel certain vices as the consequence of certain conditions and manners in society, which will

prove unconquerable while circumstances remain the same. The morbid tendency, in both cases, is too strong to be counteracted by common remedies. Nothing but a total change of habit, effected by means equally powerful and long-continued with those which bred the malady, can work a cure. To establish such an alterative plan, has been the aim of all the great reformers of mankind. It was that, you know, of our most revered friend, Mr. Howard, who was fully sensible that a combination of corrective powers was necessary to produce any considerable and lasting effects upon persons long hardened by criminal courses. But such coercive methods can only, in the common state of things, be applied to those who have made themselves the objects of legal punishment. For the reformation of a whole people, and especially of the higher classes, nothing can be relied upon but one of these grand remedial processes, which are probably within the moral plan of providence. Nations whom a long course of prosperity has rendered vain, arrogant, and luxurious, in whom increasing opulence has generated increased wants and desires, for the gratification of which, all barriers of honour and justice are broken down; who are arrived at that state in which, according to the energetic expression of the Roman historian, they can neither bear their vices, nor the remedies of them;—are only to be brought back to a right sense of things by some signal catastrophe, which shall change the whole form of their affairs, and oblige them to set out afresh, as it were, in the world. A conviction that such events are necessary, and that they are kindly intended as remedies of greater evils than they immediately occasion, is the only consideration that can tranquillise the heart of a benevolent man, who lives in a period when these awful operations are in a peculiar manner carrying on. It may reconcile him to the various delays and fluctuations in the progress towards a final event, which he cannot but ardently desire. It may convince him that nothing is lost; that no evils are

are without their correspondent benefits; and that when he wishes for a speedy settlement of things by the quiet operation of reason, without any of the harsh methods by which stubborn vices are to be forcibly eradicated, he wishes for an impracticability as great, as the surgeon who would hope to cure an inveterate cancer without the knife or the caustic.

These are times, my son, in which reflections of this kind are particular-

ly seasonable. You are capable of giving them their due force; and even should you find yourself totally mistaken in your expectations, as to the result of supposed remedial processes, you are provided with principles which will enable you to acquiesce in the humble confidence that, however distant, the time will come, when all evils, both natural and moral, shall receive their final cure.

*The Defeat of the Sans Culottes, and Death of General Dampierre, near Tournay, 8th of May 1793, by the Army of his Royal Highness the Duke of York.*

AT one o'clock in the morning the four battalions of the guards, one battalion of the Hanoverians, and the Austrian cavalry, headed by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, began their march from Tournay for Maulde, which place they reached about eight in the morning. They took post in the camp, and the Prussians immediately marched on to St. Amand and Vicogne. At nine o'clock the action commenced, and continued, during the former part of the day, with great vigour on both sides. At five, however, the Prussians began to be hard pressed by the numbers of the French, and sent to the Duke of York for assistance. With that decision and rapidity in execution which mark all his royal highness's military operations, the Coldstream, the third regiment, and the grenadiers, and light infantry, immediately marched out, leaving the first regiment and the Hanoverians in the camp. The Coldstream made an immediate attack upon the French with the utmost ardour and spirit.—They repulsed them, and were vigorously pursuing their success, but found themselves unexpectedly exposed to the fire of a French battery. They coolly received the whole fire of the French, both grape-shot and musquetry, which they returned with great effect; but, finding it impossible to carry the battery, they retired in perfect order. In this attack one officer (Ensign Howard) was wounded—two sergeants were killed, and three wounded. Twenty-seven rank and file were killed, and forty-two wounded.

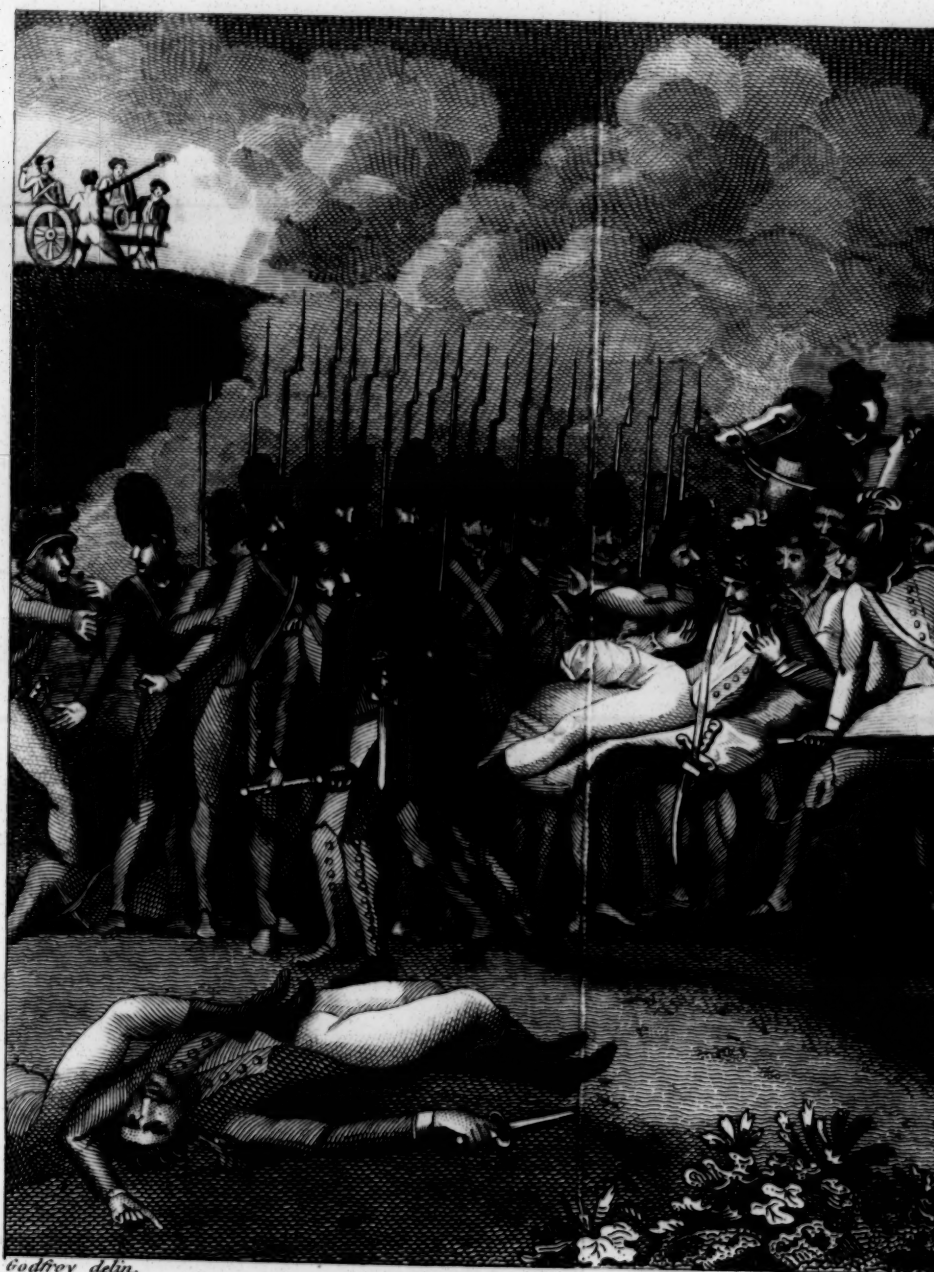
It is impossible to express adequately the steady bravery which the Bri-

tish troops displayed. The loss of so many fine fellows must be lamented by their countrymen; but their conduct upon that occasion added another laurel to the wreath of British glory. The other battalions received orders to advance, and were posted in the wood. The French mean-while kept up a very brisk fire upon the road by which they advanced, but fortunately only two men were slightly wounded by it. The British artillery fired with very great effect, and was extremely well served. The troops remained at the posts which they had taken in the woods till it was dark, and then marched back to St. Amand. The Prussians extol greatly the spirit and activity of the British; and General Knobelsdorff, in the handsomest terms, acknowledged that they saved his posts, and decided the fate of the day. The first attack on the part of the French had commenced at seven in the morning. The whole was not over till nine in the evening.

In the day's business, the Austrians lost seven hundred men, the Prussians three hundred, and the French, by the account of deserters and prisoners, four thousand killed and wounded. General Dampierre, who commanded the French, was struck by a cannon ball which cut his thigh quite off. He was borne from the field by his own soldiers, who, as well as the Prussians, appeared much concerned at this dreadful accident. He died on the night of the 9th. He was wounded by the British artillery; for, at the time that he fell, their cannon only, which were posted in the wood, were playing upon the French.





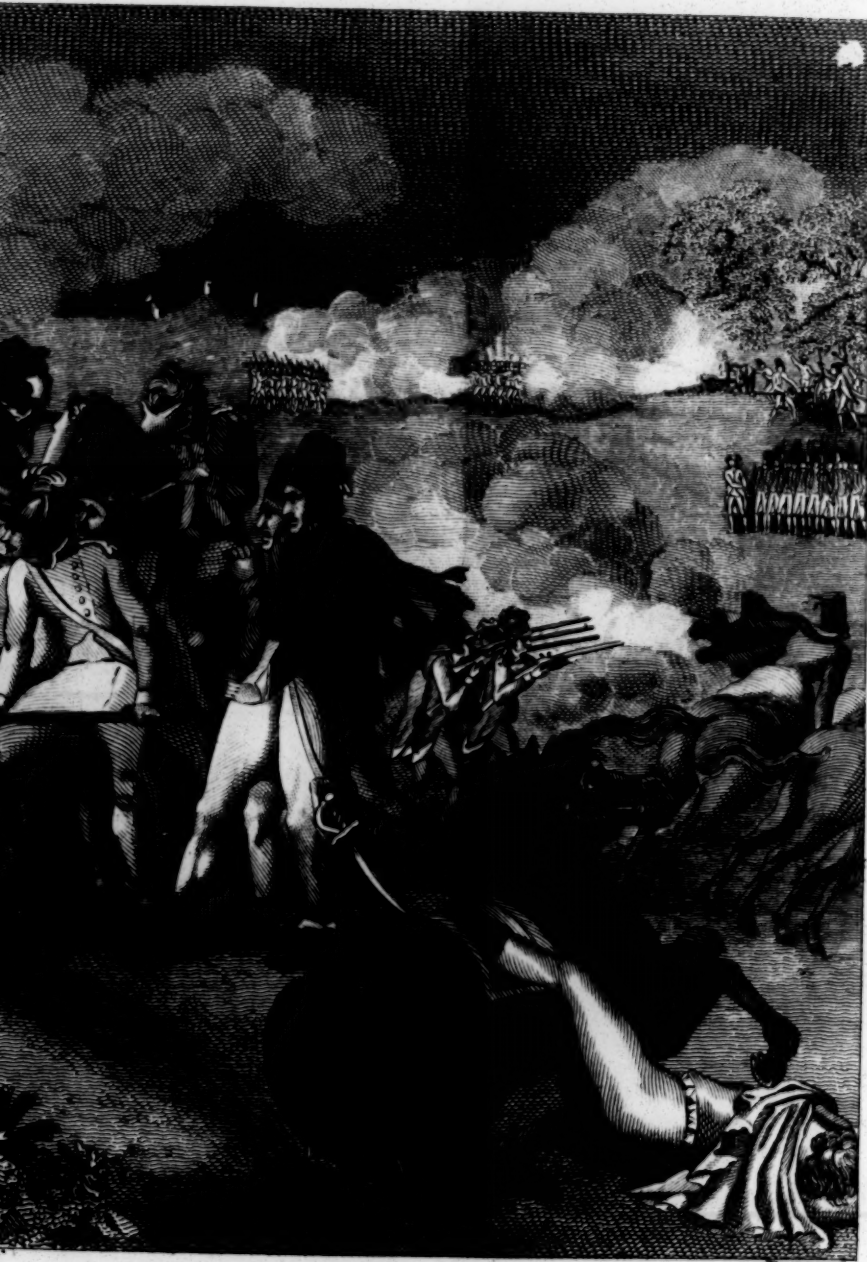


Godfrey delin.

# Defeat of the Sans Culots General Dampierre

Published as the Act directs Aug





*Execution by guillotine, and Death of  
Pierre May 3 1793.  
Engraved August 1<sup>st</sup> 1795.*





## SELECT POETRY.

*The NAVY and ARMY of BRITAIN.*

**L**ET sailors and soldiers unite in this  
cause,  
Bound together by honour and loyalty's  
band;  
Both fight for old England and cherish  
her laws,  
And give to the king each his heart and  
his hand.  
In this phalanx unite,  
Like lions we'll fight  
While no private feuds our int'rests dis-  
sever;  
But this be our toast  
And our ultimate boast,  
Here's the navy and army of England for  
ever!  
Chorus. But this be our toast, &c.

The sailor who ploughs on the watery  
main,  
To war and to danger and shipwreck a  
brother,  
And the soldier who firmly stands out the  
campaign,  
Do they fight for two men who make  
war on each other?  
Oh! no, 'tis well known,  
The same loyal throne  
Fires their bosoms with ardour and noble  
endeavour;  
And that each, with his lass  
As he drinks a full glass,  
Toasts the navy and army of Britain for  
ever.  
Chorus. And that each, &c.

That their cause is but one, and they both  
can unite,  
Needs no other example than this to be  
seen,  
Who is bolder in danger, experter in  
fight,  
Than that maritime soldier, the honest  
marine?  
He pulls and he hauls,  
He fights till he falls,  
And from fore-tack and musket he never  
will waver;  
But, when the fray's o'er,  
With his Dolly on-shore  
Drinks the navy and army of Britain for  
ever.  
Chorus. But, when the fray's, &c.

What matters it who braves the glebe or  
the furge?  
Yet, if there's a contest about either  
station,

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Let that stimulus glory and loyalty urge  
Who will stand the most firm to the  
king and the nation.  
While thus we agree,  
Let's fight and be free;  
Shall Britons 'gainst Britons draw dag-  
gers—Oh! never!  
Make the fans-culottes fly,  
And let Fame rend the sky  
With—The navy and army of Britain for  
ever!  
Chorus. Make the fans-culottes, &c.

*The DYING HORSE.*

AN ELEGY.

**C**EASE, master, cease; a little mercy  
lend,  
Nor thus my reeking sides incessant flay!  
Let thy sharp scourge my lab'ring bones  
befriend,  
Nor thus my efforts cruelly repay!  
Since morning's dawn near fourscore miles  
I've sped,  
And day's meridian scarcely now is o'er;  
Oh! let me seek, near yonder ale-house  
shed,  
That lowly stable's hospitable door!  
And must I pass it? Oh! my trembling  
limbs,  
Ye soon beneath your cruel load must  
sink;  
My brain e'en now in faint delirium  
swims,  
For life fast verges to destruction's  
brink.

Bred in thy fields, I knew thy presence  
well,  
And ever ran thy soothing hand to  
greet;  
Then frisk'd along the daisy-sprinkled  
dell,  
To shew thee early that my pow'rs were  
fleet.

To please thy fancy, I with patience  
bent  
My velvet ear to meet the iron's heat,  
And all the tort'ring whims which men  
invent,  
To tame and shape us to their ends com-  
plete.

Fed in thy pasture, I with grateful speed  
Have been the foremost with the tune-  
ful pack,  
Nor hill, nor hedge, nor wall, could e'er  
impede,  
But o'er I brought thee on my faithful  
back.

When

When late at marts and taverns thou hast  
    staid,  
Thy sense unequal to direct the road,  
O'er the dark heath—through rutted lanes  
    I've neigh'd,  
And bore in safety home my drowsy  
    load.

Oft my dear mistress have I drawn with  
    care,  
With her sweet brood to join the vil-  
    lage-school,  
And thought myself full proud when she  
    would spare  
One look, one pat, or call me her "poor  
    fool!"

With such a charge for worlds I had not fell,  
Nor given alarm to those so dear to  
    thee—  
Then let compassion in thy bosom dwell,  
Nor furious thus increase my misery!

Oh! if intemperance in her wildest hours  
Has urg'd thee to propose the cruel bet,  
My once kind master! strain no more my  
    pow'rs,  
They fail beneath the arduous task  
    that's set.

If true the doctrine which some sages hold,  
Of transmigration's just and vengeful  
    fate,  
Oh! think what horror will thy page un-  
    fold,  
How wilt thou suffer in thine alter'd  
    state!

This day's base action then shall rise in  
    awe,  
And doom thee to some pannier'd  
    ass's lot,  
Thy sides half famish'd, and thy back half  
    raw,  
Standing neglected near thy master's cot.

Or some grim tyrant, bent on self and  
    blood,  
May bring on thee a premature old age;  
An out-cast cripple, sell thee from his stud,  
To meet the collier's or the sand-man's  
    rage.

Ah! dost thou pause—thy heel forgot its  
    stroke—  
'Tis now too late to call the deed ac-  
    curst!  
Mercy too late has in thy heart awoke,  
My eyes grow dim, my mighty heart is  
    burst!

Farewell! affected by my mournful tale,  
Some breasts may feel the keenness of  
    remorse;  
And, should my fate but turn compassion's  
    scale,  
A future race may bless the Dying Horse.

## FASHION. A SATIRE.

NOT unattended moves her tinsel state,  
Alivory'd suit her gay behests await:  
Officious Vanity, with ardent gaze,  
Her own imagin'd conscious charms  
    surveys;  
Then turns with self-complacent eye  
    around,  
To catch th' admiring plaudit of a sound:  
Fantastic Novelty, whom fools adore,  
Before the goddess spreads her gaudy  
    store;  
Her form attractive moves the vacant  
    throne,  
And Reason, half seduc'd, is drawn along;  
Dazzled—her native dignity betrays,  
Yet faintly echoes giddy Fashion's praise;  
And buxom Pleasure, with insidious wiles,  
Gives a false zest to Fashion's artful finiles;  
And lisping Affectation joins the train,  
With mincing movements, and a smirking  
    mien;  
While tyrant Custom, with prescriptive  
    force,  
Strong sanction stamps on her capricious  
    course;  
Custom—to truth and nature insincere,  
Guides the gay goddess in her mad ca-  
    reer;  
Nonsense, with tongue loquacious, puffs  
    aloud  
The fame of Fashion to the gaping crowd,  
Till, bloated with the crude vociferous  
    lays,  
E'en Pride detects the cheat, and scorns  
    to praise;  
Askaunce he sneers, his high disdain to  
    show,  
And feels himself abash'd to stoop so low.

## ON DEATH.

WOULD heav'n reverse th' inevitable  
    doom,  
That destines all creation to the tomb;  
Could virtue flourish, permanent as truth,  
In constant vigour, and in bloom of  
    youth;  
Could health and happiness for ever last,  
And new enjoyments still succeed the  
    past;—  
'Twere madness sure with dangers to  
    contend,  
And risque those blessings which would  
    never end.  
But ah! in vain misfortunes we elude;  
Age, sorrow, and disease, too soon in-  
    trude;  
Not wit, not piety itself, can save,  
Nor grant one moment's respite from the  
    grave!  
That plea without distinction was denied,  
Or Falkland, Hampden, Sidney, ne'er  
    had died;  
That plea no privilege on earth can give,  
Or Burke and Savile would for ever live.

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

HORSE-GUARDS, June 27.

*Copy of a Dispatch from General Sir John Vaughan, K. B. to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas.*

SIR, MARTINICO, April 16, 1795.

THE enemy having gained to their cause many of the French inhabitants and negroes in Grenada, and concerted measures for raising an insurrection in that colony, which from the perfidy of the inhabitants alluded to, they were invited to attempt, they conveyed to that island, early in the last month, a quantity of arms and ammunition, with a small number of troops, which, secretly joining themselves to the conspirators, appeared suddenly in arms.

Lieutenant-governor Home and many other gentlemen in the country were surprised and made prisoners. His majesty's troops being employed on many points, this dangerous revolt could not be immediately suppressed, though from the exertions of Captain Rogers, of his majesty's ship the *Quebec*, and of the garrison there, joined to the militia, they were kept in cheque.

The unfortunate death of Brigadier-general Lindsay, (whom I sent to command there,) a few days after his arrival, retarded the operations against them. Upon the arrival of the reinforcement, under the convoy of Rear-admiral Parker, at Barbadoes, two battalions, with a detachment of royal artillery, were ordered to Grenada.

Several skirmishes happened since their landing, in one of which, on the 10th instant, it is with concern I have learnt that Captain Stopford of the 9th regiment, Captain Hewan of the 25th, and Ensign Baillie of the 29th, were killed, and about twenty men killed and sixty wounded, owing entirely to their attempting the side of the steep mountain, defended with abattis.

Brigadier-general Nicolls, whom I have sent to command there, will, I am satisfied, make every exertion to subdue this enemy; and I trust soon to receive good accounts from him.—I am sorry to add, that the enemy has committed many acts of barbarity.

In St. Vincent's the Charibs, instigated by the French, and joined by most of the French inhabitants, seized a fa-

vourable time most treacherously to attack the English inhabitants of that colony. The acts of cruelty, which they have committed upon defenceless men, women, and children, are beyond description, and burning every plantation in their power.

Fortunately, by General Seton's exertion, and that of the navy under Captain Skinner, of the *Zebra*, with the spirited behaviour of the garrison and inhabitants, they were beaten from a post they occupied over Kingston, with the loss of their chief: and the arrival of the 46th regiment has enabled the governor again to attack them, which he did on the 10th instant, and succeeded in driving them from their positions with considerable loss on their side, and but small on ours.—The colony, from their devastations, is reduced to a very distressed situation. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN VAUGHAN.

*Extract of a Letter from General Sir John Vaughan, K. B. to Mr. Dundas, dated Martinico, April 25.*

I have just received an account from St. Lucia, that Brigadier-general Stewart, after taking possession of Vieux Fort and neighbourhood, had proceeded to attack the enemy's principal place of strength at Souffriere.—He was attacked by the enemy upon his march on the 20th instant, who had formed an ambuscade. The flank companies of the 9th regiment, and the black corps under Captain Malcolm, were the troops engaged.

The enemy, after a severe conflict, was driven back. Captain Malcolm, and Captain Nesbitt of the 9th, were wounded, after behaving in the most gallant manner.—The troops continued their march upon Souffriere, near to which, upon the mountainous ground, our attack was made on the 22d instant, by Brigadier-general Stewart, and, notwithstanding there appears to have been the greatest exertions made by his majesty's forces, they were unsuccessful in their object.

Both sides appear to have suffered considerably; but, as I have not yet received any account from Brigadier-general Stewart, I cannot be accurate. I have, however, reason to believe, that our killed and wounded exceed 200; with several officers.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, June 30.

Letters, of which the following are extracts and copies, have been received at this office from Vice-admiral Caldwell.

*Ocean Transport, St. Pierre, Martinique, April 17, 1795.*

SIR, In my letter of the 15th of March I informed you of the insurrection at Grenada, and that orders were sent to Barbadoes to make detachments from thence, immediately on the arrival of the convoy, which took place accordingly; and I am now extremely concerned to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, of our failure in our attempt on the 8th instant, to dislodge the enemy from an eminence on which they had taken post; for the particulars of which I beg to refer you to the inclosed copies of letters from Captains Rogers and Watkins; and for the situation of the colony to the former's subsequent letter by Colonel Webster. Captain Sawyer has taken a sloop under St. Lucia, with arms, ammunition, and provisions, from Guadaloupe; and Captain Watkins acquaints me he has captured a privateer and a schooner with arms and ammunition, under Spanish colours.

BEN. CALDWELL.

*To the Secretary of the Admiralty.*

*Quebec, Grenada, April 9.*

SIR, I was in great hopes, every day ever since the arrival of the two regiments under Colonel Campbell, to have announced to you the total subjugation of the French and rebels in this island; but such vast quantities of rain have constantly been falling until yesterday morning as to preclude the possibility of carrying on any military operations in the mountainous part of this island. It having been judged absolutely necessary to assault the enemy's camp the first favourable moment; and willing to give every assistance in my power from the navy, to insure, if possible, success, Captain Watkins, of the *Resource*, became a willing volunteer on the occasion. A corps of 150 men was selected by him from the *Resource*, and volunteers from the transports, with whom Captain Bromwell served as a volunteer. Inclosed I send you Captain Watkin's letter, to which I beg leave to refer you for the particulars of our misfortune. I have not yet seen a return from the army, though I understand the loss amounts to, in killed and wounded, 100. Every tongue is loud in praise of the gallant conduct of Captain Watkins, in this unfortunate affair; and I want words to express a just sense

of my obligations to him for the zeal and exertion he has so eminently displayed ever since his arrival here. Capt. Bromwell's behaviour has been highly meritorious, and the service is much indebted to his exertions and example. I beg leave to assure you no relaxation of exertions with the navy will take place.

*To Vice-admiral Caldwell.* J. ROGERS.

*Ocean Transport, St. Pierre, Martinique, April 19.*

SIR, With much satisfaction I inclose you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, a copy of a letter from Captain Sawyer, giving an account of a successful expedition at St. Lucia; and hope, before the packet leaves St. Kitt's, to send another account of that colony being restored to peace, which the general Sir John Vaughan and myself conceive will have a very good effect at St. Vincent's and Grenada.

BEN. CALDWELL.

*To the Secretary of the Admiralty.*

*Blanche, Carenage, St. Lucia, April 18.*

SIR, I beg to acquaint you, that I have just arrived at this place (for the purpose of returning their boats to the transports) from Vieux Fort, which town and its vicinity, I have the satisfaction to inform you, the enemy abandoned the day before yesterday, and which was immediately taken possession of by Brigadier-general Stewart, and his majesty's troops. I forthwith got under weigh from the place where we had disembarked the troops, and came to an anchor off the town of Vieux Fort, where I found an empty French sloop and schooner, and an American brig, partly laden with produce. My stay at Vieux Fort, after the capture of the place, was not sufficient to enable me to transmit to you an account of the stores and ammunition found there; but I understand that there was in the church and other large buildings a considerable quantity of provisions and some produce. I have the pleasure to inform you that yesterday, in my way here, I had the good fortune to capture a small privateer, which, for the present, I use for a tender. I am now getting under way to return to Vieux Fort, for the purpose of co-operating with the brigadier-general in his future plans; and I hope very shortly to be able to inform you that Souffriere, which is the principal post of the enemy, is once more reduced to his majesty's authority, and that peace and tranquillity are again restored to this colony.

C. SAWYER.

*To Vice-admiral Caldwell.*

*Ocean*



*Ocean Transport, St. Pierre, Martinique, April 25.*

SIR, In my letter of the 19th instant, inclosing a copy of a letter from Captain Sawyer, relating a successful expedition at St. Lucia, I mentioned my hopes that the next account would be that the colony was restored to peace, &c. but have now the unpleasing task to request you will lay before my lords commissioners of the admiralty the inclosed copy of a letter from Captain Sawyer, received this morning, giving an account of our having failed in the expedition against Souffriere, and that General Stewart was returning to Vieux Fort. We have no other account than Captain Sawyer's letter, which was brought by Lieutenant Barrett, who understood our loss was about 200 killed and wounded. BEN. CALDWELL.  
*To the Secretary of the Admiralty.*

*Blanche, Choiseul, St. Lucia, April 23.*

SIR, It is with much concern I relate to you that the enemy, with a force infinitely superior to any Brigadier-general Stewart imagined they could collect, attacked the troops under his command yesterday, on their march to Souffriere, and, after an engagement which lasted seven hours, compelled them to retreat to this place. I am sorry to observe our loss has been very considerable. We are now embarking the troops, with which the general proposes to return to Vieux Fort, which place he thinks his present force equal to maintain. As negroes could not be procured to drag the cannon, the general applied to me for men to assist the soldiers in that fatiguing duty. I accordingly sent Lieutenant Barrett on shore, with twenty seamen and ten marines for that purpose. I feel it my duty to inform you, sir, that the general expresses in the strongest terms, his approbation of Lieutenant Barrett's conduct in this instance, as also that of the seamen and marines under his command.  
*To Vice-admiral Caldwell. C. SAWYER.*

*HORSE GUARDS, July 4.*

A letter from General the Hon. Sir John Vaughan, K. B. commander in chief of his majesty's forces in the Leeward Islands, dated Martinico, May 11, 1795, of which the following is an extract, has been received by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

I have the honour to inclose to you an extract of a letter which I have this morning received from Governor Seton. It will give you full information as to the present state of affairs in that island. I

also inclose Brigadier-general Stewart's return of the killed and wounded in the late actions at St. Lucia, which was not received when my last dispatches were closed.

*Extract of Letter from Governor Seton to Sir John Vaughan, dated St. Vincent's, May 8.*

The enemy having appeared yesterday on the height above Calliaqua, to the number of seven or eight hundred, I requested Captain Carpenter, with his majesty's ship Alarm, to move round to Calliaqua bay, which he immediately complied with. They had sent two insulting messages to Captain Moleworth, who commanded the party there, requiring him to surrender at discretion. Being informed that they had, within these few days, being considerably reinforced from Guadaloupe, and suspecting, from their number and apparent confidence, that some attempt would be made against the town of Kingston, I sent a party under Captain Hall, of the 46th regiment, consisting of one subaltern and thirty-three rank and file of that regiment, forty militia, and forty of the corps of rangers, with five of the royal artillery, and a fourteen-pound field-piece, to take possession of Dorsetshire-hill, yesterday forenoon. About one o'clock this morning they were attacked by a body of about 300 French and Charibs; our party made a vigorous resistance, but, owing to the enemy's great superiority in numbers, they were obliged to retreat to a post on Sihon-hill, leaving the field-piece spiked. Knowing that the town must be inevitably destroyed by the enemy if they kept possession of that hill, I thought it necessary to use every exertion to dislodge them, and, concluding that no time was to be lost in attempting it, I immediately detached sixty rank and file of the 46th regiment, under the command of Captain Foster, one hundred of the corps of rangers, and forty militia, the whole under the command of Lieut.-colonel Seton of the rangers, to attack the enemy at day-break. They had, with great dexterity, found means to clear the field-piece of the spike, during the short time they had it in their possession, and had been joined by upwards of one hundred French and Charibs immediately after Captain Hall's party retreated: our troops attacked them with great spirit at the time appointed: and though they were unexpectedly annoyed by several discharges of grape-shot from the field-piece, and notwithstanding the enemy were in such force, in less than half an hour they re-took the field-piece and got possession of the hill, the enemy flying on all sides.

In

In the two attacks there were three privates of the royal artillery wounded, three rank and file of the 46th regiment killed, nine rank and file wounded; Captain Forster and Ensign Lee slightly wounded; three privates of the militia killed; Captain Ross and twelve rank and file wounded. Of the enemy, twenty-three Frenchmen and nineteen Charibs were found dead on the hill, and two Frenchmen and two Charibs taken prisoners; but it is believed their loss in all was twice that number, as many of them were seen at some distance carrying off in hammocks after the attack.

*Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Missing, in the Actions on the following Days, of the Troops under the Command of Brigadier-general Stewart, in the Island of St. Lucia.*

14th of April. 9th, Flank Companies—2 rank and file killed, 6 rank and file wounded.

61st—3 rank and file wounded.

68th Flank Companies—3 rank and file wounded.

Royal Rangers—1 serjeant, 5 rank and file, wounded.

15th of April. Royal Rangers—2 rank and file killed; 1 serjeant, 4 rank and file, wounded.

20th of April. 9th, Flank Companies—2 rank and file killed; 1 captain, 2 serjeants, 14 rank and file, wounded.

Royal Rangers—6 rank and file killed; 1 captain, 1 serjeant, 18 rank and file, wounded.

22d of April. Royal Artillery—5 rank and file wounded.

9th, Flank Companies—3 rank and file killed.

61st—9 rank and file killed; 2 captains, 3 subalterns, 7 serjeants, 2 drummers, 53 rank and file, wounded; 5 rank and file missing.

68th, Flank Companies—1 captain, 1 rank and file, killed; 1 subaltern, 1 serjeant, 10 rank and file, wounded.

Carolina Corps—1 rank and file wounded.

Royal Rangers—4 rank and file killed; 5 rank and file wounded.

Total—1 captain, 29 rank and file, killed; 4 captains, 4 subalterns, 13 serjeants, 2 drummers, 127 rank and file, wounded; 5 rank and file missing.

*Names of the Officers killed and wounded.*

Captain Waugh, of the 68th regiment, killed.

Captain Malcolm, of the Royal Rangers; Nesbitt, 9 regiment; Riddle and Whelan, 61st; wounded.

Lieutenants Grant and Moore, of the 61st, wounded.

Ensign Butler, of the 61st, wounded.

Lieutenant Malot, of the 68th, wounded.

M. Loireau, assistant engineer, wounded April 15.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, July 11.

*A Dispatch, of which the following is a Copy, has been received at this Office, from Sir W. Sydney Smith.*

*Diamond, off St. Marcon, July 5, 1795.*

SIR, In pursuance of the orders of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, I sailed from St. Helen's on the evening of the 1st instant, and stretched across the channel towards Cherbourg, his majesty's ships Syren and Sybille, also four gun-boats, in company. On looking into that port, we found that one of three frigates which had been seen there the last time we were off was missing: the master of a neutral vessel, just come out, informed me she had sailed to the eastward, and I accordingly proceeded in quest of her. Going round Cape Bartleur, we saw two ships, one of them having the appearance of the frigate in question, at anchor under the land, and immediately made sail towards them: we soon after saw a convoy coming along shore, within the Islands of St. Marcon. The wind dying away, and the ebb tide making against me, I was obliged to anchor, and had the mortification to see the enemy's vessels drift with the tide under the batteries of la Hogue, without being able to approach them.

At four o'clock in the morning of yesterday, the breeze springing up with the first of the flood, I made the signal to the squadron, weighed, and worked up towards the enemy's ships, which we observed warping closer in shore under the battery on la Hogue point. As we approached I made the signal for each ship to engage as she came up with the enemy, and at nine o'clock began the action in the Diamond. The other frigates, having been sent in chase in different quarters the day before, had not been able to anchor so near in as we did, and were consequently to leeward, as were two of the gun-boats. The Fearless and Attack were with me, and their commanders conducted them in a manner to merit my approbation, by drawing off the attention of the enemy's gun-boats, of which they had two also. The small vessels of the convoy ran into the pier before the town. The largest, a corvette; continued warping into shoal water; we followed, engaging her and the batteries for three-quarters of an hour; when finding that the enemy's ship had attained a situation where it was impossible to get fairly alongside of her without grounding likewise, and the pilots being positive as to the necessity of hauling off from the shore, where the water had already begun to ebb, I acquiesced under their representations, and wore ship. The Syren and



and Sybille were come up by this time, and the zeal and ability of their commanders would, I am persuaded, have carried them into action with some effect, if I had not annulled the signal to engage, which I did, to prevent them getting disabled, as we were, when we had no longer a prospect of making ourselves masters of the enemy's ship. She had suffered in proportion, and we now see her lying on her broad-side, with her yards and top-masts struck, but, I am sorry to say, so much sheltered by the reef which runs off from la Hogue point, that I cannot indulge a hope of her being destroyed. In justice to my officers and ship's company, I must add, that their conduct was such as gave me satisfaction. I received the most able assistance from the first lieutenant, Mr. Pine, and Mr. Wilkie, the master, in working the ship, on the precision of which every thing depended, circumstanced as we were with respect to the shoals, and the enemy. The guns of the main deck were well served, under the direction of Lieutenants Pearson and Sandsbury, and the men were cool and collected. No officer was hurt, but I am sorry to say I have lost one of the best quarter-masters in the ship, Thomas Gallen, killed, and two seamen wounded. The enemy fired high, or we should have suffered more materially from their red-hot-shot, the marks of which were visible in the rigging. We have shifted our fore and main-top masts, which, with two top-sail yards, were shot through, and, having repaired our other more trifling damages, I shall proceed in the attainment of the object of the cruise. Fishing-boats, with which we have an intercourse, confirm all former accounts of distress for want of provisions, and the consequent discontent in this distracted country. I have the honour to be, &c.

W. S. SMITH.

*Evan Nepean, Esq. Secretary, Admiralty.*

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Sir Richard Strachan, of his Majesty's Ship Melampus, dated off Cape Freheld, July 4, 1795, to Evan Nepean, Esq.*

Being off Point d'Enqui, on the 3d instant, we saw, near St. Maloes, thirteen sail, which we gave chase to, and, coming up with them, drove the merchant-vessels in different directions to leeward, while the vessels of war kept to windward, and endeavoured to gain the port of St. Maloes, which at last they effected excepting one brig, which was taken by this ship, and six of the most considerable merchant-vessels, which were taken chiefly by the

Hebe, with her usual activity. It being rainy weather, the other small vessels escaped to leeward. This proved to be a convoy which sailed in the morning from St. Maloes, bound to Brehat and Brest, under a ship of war of 26 guns, two brigs, and a lugger. The vessels we have taken are said to have military stores on-board. The brig of war mounts four twenty-four pounders, and had sixty men.

BERLIN, July 5.

On Friday evening the 3d instant died here, after a short illness, very much regretted, the Right Honourable Lord Henry John Spencer, his Britannic majesty's envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.

[His lordship was second son to the Duke of Marlborough, and in his 25th year. After an education at Eton and Oxford, where he gave the promising hopes which he afterwards realised, he was introduced into public life before he was twenty years of age, as secretary to Lord Auckland's embassy at the Hague. In the year following he remained several months alone charged with the affairs of that embassy, at a period of considerable difficulty and importance. It was then that he established the reputation of discernment and vigour of mind, and of discretion and propriety of conduct. To these qualifications he added the farther advantage of writing with uncommon elegance and precision of expression. In 1793, he was named envoy extraordinary to the court of Stockholm; and in 1794 he entered upon a mission in which this country lost a minister, who must have become, if his life had been spared, one of its highest and brightest ornaments.]

NATIONAL CONVENTION, June 9.

Sevestre, in the name of the committee of public safety, announced the death of the Dauphin in the following words: "For some time the son of Capet had been troubled by a swelling of the right knee, and another of the left wrist. His appetite failed him; and he was at length attacked by a fever. The celebrated Desfault was appointed to visit and attend him; his talents and his probity convinced us, that none of the attendance due to humanity would be spared. Desfault died June 4; and your committee appointed as his successor, Citizen Pelletan, a very distinguished officer of health: Citizen Demanger, first physician of the hospital of health, was added to the former. Faithful to the principles of humanity, your committee neglected nothing to bring about the re-establishment of the health of the sick youth. The disease,

disease, however, manifested alarming symptoms. At eleven o'clock yesterday morning, the bulletin delivered to us announced great and immediate danger; and this morning, at a quarter past two, we were apprized of the news of young Capet's death. I propose to you to decree, that the proces verbeaux in which it is entered, may be deposited in the national archives."—Decreed. The above report to be inserted in the bulletin.

PRINCE OF CONDE'S ARMY, *June 17.*

On the 14th of June the Prince of Condé, having received the news of the death of Louis XVII. dispatched a general officer immediately to Verona, to receive orders from the new king, Monsieur, now Louis XVIII. On the 16th the Prince of Condé celebrated in the middle of his camp, a solemn service for the repose of the soul of the late Louis, after which, the army being ranged in order of battle, the prince made the following proclamation:

"Gentlemen, scarcely had the tombs of the unfortunate Louis XVI. his august consort, and his respectable sister, been closed, when they have again been opened, to unite to those illustrious victims the most interesting object of our love, our hope, and our esteem. The young descendant of so many kings, whose birth alone could secure the happiness of his subjects, inasmuch as the blood of Henry IV. and of Maria Theresa flowed in his veins, has just sunk under the weight of his fetters, and of a miserable existence. It is not the first time that I have called to your recollection this principle, that the king never dies in France. Let us therefore swear to this august prince, now become our king, that we will shed our last drop of blood, in proof of that unbounded fidelity, that entire devotion, that unalterable attachment, which we owe to him, and with which our souls are penetrated. Our wishes are about to be manifested by that cry which comes from the heart, and which a profound sense of duty has rendered so natural to all good Frenchmen—a cry which was always the presage and the result of your successes, and which the regicides have never heard without stupor and remorse. After having invoked the God of Mercy in behalf of the king whom we have lost, let us entreat the God of Battle to prolong the life of the king now given to us, to secure the crown of France upon his head, by victories, if necessary, and still more, if possible, by the repentance of his subjects, and by the happy union of clemency and justice.—Gentlemen, Louis XVII. is dead; long live Louis XVIII."

Mr. Crawford, the envoy from the King of England, assisted at this ceremony, united in the exclamation of Live Louis the Eighteenth, and threw his hat up into the air. He brought money for the army, and the most satisfactory assurances from the king his master.

NEW CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE.

The legislative power is to be divided between two assemblies. The one to be composed of 500 members, under the title of the Council of Five Hundred; the other of 250 members, under the appellation of the Council of the Elders. The council of five hundred, like our house of commons, is to propose all laws; the council of elders, somewhat on the model of our house of peers, is to sanction and ratify them. Half of the members of each assembly to go out every two years. To be eligible to the council of five hundred, a man must be a French citizen, have been resident in France for ten years previously to his election, be thirty years of age, and be possessed of a certain portion of landed property. To be eligible to the council of the elders, a man must be either married or a widower, have been resident in France for fifteen years, be forty years of age, and must have been in possession of a certain portion of landed property for one year previously to his election.—The legislative body to have a guard of 1200 men. The two councils are to be elected directly by the primary assemblies. Every man born and living in France, and twenty-one years of age, whose name is inscribed in the register of his canton, and who pays a contribution to the state, is a French citizen. Persons, however, born in France and having made one or more campaigns in the present war, are exempted from the above condition. Foreigners are not to be entitled to the rights of French citizens until they have resided seven years in France, and pay a direct contribution, or possess any landed property, or marry a French woman.

The executive power is to be vested in the hands of a directory, composed of five members, and appointed by the legislative body from a list made out by the council of the elders. The directors are to remain in power five years; one is to go out by rotation every year; each is to be president in his turn for three months. Palaces and large salaries are to be assigned them, and they are to be attended in public by a guard of honour. The directors are not to be less than forty years of age; and the members of the legislative body cannot be elected to the executive power till two years after the expiration of their legislative functions.



MEMOIRS OF SIR ROGER CURTIS, BARONET, REAR ADMIRAL  
OF THE RED.

SIR Roger Curtis discovered an early inclination for a maritime life; but, being an only son, his father, who resided at Downton in Wiltshire, and who was very respectable both as to property and character, used every means to divert him from his object, but without effect; and he was introduced to this arduous profession at an early period, under the patronage of the late Lord Feverham.

He served as a midshipman for a considerable time under Admiral Barrington, and in the year 1771 was promoted to the rank of lieutenant at the desire of the late Duke of Cumberland.

Soon after his promotion he was sent as lieutenant in the Otter sloop on the Newfoundland station; when, being naturally of an active inquisitive turn of mind, he devoted his attention to the fishery, and made himself acquainted with the nature and principle of that great national concern. At that juncture Lord Shuldham was governor there; and, discerning the talents of Sir Roger, he contracted a friendship for him, and, on the command of the fleet in America being given to that nobleman in 1775, he chose his friend for one of his lieutenants, and reposed in him unlimited confidence. In June 1776, he was appointed captain of the Senegal sloop. Lord Howe shortly after took the command of the fleet in America, and, Sir Roger having opportunities of attracting his notice upon several occasions, his lordship very soon particularly distinguished him. In April 1777, his lordship making an arrangement in his fleet, by which means his own ship, the Eagle, became vacant, he promoted Sir Roger to be his captain, although previous to his meeting him in America he was totally unknown to his lordship, and at that time one of the youngest masters and commanders in his fleet. He returned with Lord Howe from America in the Eagle, of which ship

he continued captain; but the Eagle being soon afterwards ordered for the East Indies, and Sir Roger being then in a bad state of health, he was permitted to resign his command.

In November 1780, he was appointed captain of the Brilliant, and sailed for Gibraltar under sealed orders, accompanied by a cutter; but, being attacked by a great force of the enemy near to that place, he was driven into the Mediterranean, and went to Minorca. Having there a few frigates under his command, he conducted from thence to Gibraltar a very important convoy of provisions for the garrison. He now took upon himself the management of the naval affairs at Gibraltar, where his zeal, gallantry, and indefatigable labours, were very soon and sensibly felt, and his ideas of discipline and service, corresponding with those of General Elliott the governor, the utmost confidence and harmony subsisted between them.

The gun-boats, fitted out by him, gave security to the troops in camp, and were productive of the most essential advantages. In August 1781, the Helena sloop, going to Gibraltar with dispatches, was becalmed in the bay, and attacked by fourteen Spanish gun-boats, besides mortar-boats, and other small craft, and supported by Captain Curtis with only three gun-boats from the garrison. He conducted this business with such skill and gallantry, and the Helena was so bravely defended by Captain Roberts and his crew, that the enemy were beat off and retired in confusion, though a frigate and a xebec were approaching very fast to their assistance. This action was highly extolled by Gen. Elliott in his letter to the secretary of state. Sir Roger had also a great share in planning with the governor the successful sally made from the garrison in the following November. One hundred seamen from the ships were employed with the troops in this enterprise, who were put under the immediate

immediate command of two naval lieutenants, but Sir Roger could not be prevailed on to refrain from accompanying them in the attack. There were in the garrison different opinions about the success of this measure, and he felt himself bound to go upon a service, which it was generally supposed had at least met with his hearty concurrence. Gen. Elliott was also present at the attack, and perhaps for similar reasons. The general in his public letter, speaking of Sir Roger's conduct on that occasion, says, "he greatly distinguished himself by his discernment, assistance, and personal efforts." What the enemy had been eighteen months in constructing, was intirely in flames in two hours, and finally reduced to ashes. This eminent service was performed before 20,000 Spanish troops, and in the front of at least seventy pieces of cannon and thirty mortars.

His whole conduct during the siege of Gibraltar has been very highly and justly extolled. Partaking of every labour, and sharing in every danger, he was the idol of his men, who were animated by his example; and the services performed on shore by the sailors were of the most important nature. When, previous to the attack of the enemy, it was found necessary to secure the shipping and encamp the seamen; his brigade amounted to near one thousand, and so exact was the discipline and order which he established and maintained, that the sailors performed the duty of soldiers with a regularity and obedience equal to the troops of the garrison.

His humanity, and the bravery of his conduct, at Gibraltar upon the grand attack of the enemy, on the 13th of Sept. 1782, will always be remembered, and held in the highest admiration. When the Spanish battering ships were in flames, he determined to attempt saving the men remaining in them, and repeatedly put his own life, as well as the lives of his men, in the most imminent danger, for the preservation of the vanquished enemy. The blowing up of these floating batteries, as the flames reached the powder-rooms,

and the discharge of their guns as the metal became heated by the fire, rendered the saving the men who were on-board them a very dangerous enterprise. But the compassion they excited by their distress, and the supplications they were seen to make by their gestures, were too much for his humanity to resist. The peril he encountered to save them was such, that, while his boat was alongside one of the largest floating batteries, it blew up, and the fragments of its wreck spread to a vast circumference. At this awful moment a piece of timber fell into his boat, and pierced through its bottom, wounding several of his men, and his boatswain was killed as he stood behind him; and one of his gun-boats was sunk by the same explosion. But, notwithstanding the impression this narrow escape must unavoidably have made upon him, he afterwards boarded several other of the floating batteries where the flames were raging with great violence, and took out the people.

Lord Howe with the fleet under his command bringing succours to the garrison on the October following, Sir Roger was compelled by accident to accompany his lordship to England; for, having during the night gone on-board his lordship's ship upon some important business, his return to the garrison the following morning was prevented, by the situation of the enemy's fleet. His wish now was to serve again immediately under his lordship; but his majesty's ministers, in conformity to a pressing solicitation of General Elliott, determined to send him again to Gibraltar, and he was carried thither in the *Thetis* frigate, having previously had the honour of knighthood conferred upon him, and been raised to the rank of commodore; and he was also appointed his majesty's ambassador to the Emperor of Morocco, and the other states of Barbary. In the latter end of the year 1783 he returned to England, having been succeeded in the chief command in the Mediterranean by Commodore Sir John Lindsay, K. B.

In the following year he was appointed to command the *Ganges* of 74 guns, a guardship at Portsmouth.

Upon



Upon the armament of 1790 he was Captain of the *Queen Charlotte* of 100 guns, on-board which ship Lord Howe hoisted his flag; and soon afterwards he became captain of the fleet under his lordship, in the room of the Honourable Rear Admiral Leveson Gower, who hoisted his flag in another ship. Affairs having been arranged with Spain, and the fleet paid off, he took the command of the *Brunswick* of 74 guns, in which ship he continued until the commencement of the present war, when he again went on-board the *Queen Charlotte* as captain of the fleet with Lord Howe, in which post he still continues, and will probably retain it as long as the noble earl is able to exert, for the benefit of his country, those superior abilities which he is universally allowed to possess.

Upon the promotion of flag-officers in April 1794, he was appointed Colonel of the Plymouth Division of Marines; and at the next promotion of flag-officers which took place in consequence of Lord Howe's glorious victory over the French fleet on the 1st of June following, he was made a rear-admiral of the blue; and on the 1st of June, the present year, he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral of the red.

His majesty, upon his visit to the fleet upon its return to Portsmouth after the glorious victory above-men-

tioned, gave to all the flag-officers who served with Lord Howe on that occasion a chain of gold; and Sir Roger's post as captain of the fleet, giving him the rank of a rear-admiral, he was presented with the chain, the same as the other flag-officers, and was also raised to the dignity of a Baronet of Great Britain.

Sir Roger Curtis greatly distinguished himself on the glorious first of June. The *Queen Charlotte* was closely engaged with the French admiral, who sheered off about an hour after the action commenced, followed by most of his van in condition to carry sail, but leaving ten or twelve crippled or dismasted ships behind him, exclusive of one sunk in the engagement. The *Queen Charlotte* had also suffered much, having lost her foretop-mast, and the maintop-mast fell over the side very soon after.—The issue of that memorable day is so fresh in the memory of all our readers, that it will be needless to add any thing here; the part which Sir Roger Curtis bore in it is particularly described in pages 83 and 85 of the second volume of this work.

Sir Roger Curtis is, we believe, now bordering upon fifty years of age. His education, which was a liberal one, has been much improved by study; and his natural disposition and manners are peculiarly amiable and engaging.

#### BATTLE OF CHÆRONEA.

CHÆRONEA was the birthplace of Plutarch; famous for the fatal defeat of the confederate Greeks by Philip of Macedon. This place was considered by Philip as well adapted to the operations of the Macedonian phalanx; and the ground for his encampment, and afterwards the field of battle, were chosen with equal sagacity: having in view on one side a temple of Hercules, whom the Macedonians regarded as the author of their royal house, and the high protector of their fortune; and on the other the banks of the Thermoodon, a small river flowing into the Cephissus, announced by the oracles

of Greece as the destined scene of desolation and woe to their unhappy country. The generals of the confederate Greeks had been much less careful to avail themselves of the powerful sanctions of superstition. Unrestrained by inauspicious sacrifices, the Athenians had left their city at the exhortation of Demosthenes, to wait no other omen but the cause of their country. Regardless of oracles, they afterwards advanced to the ill-fated Thermoodon accompanied by the Thebans, and the scanty reinforcements raised by the islands and states of Peloponnesus which had joined their alliance. Their army amounted

amounted to thirty thousand men, animated by the noblest cause for which men can fight, but commanded by the Athenians, Lyficles and Chares; the first but little, and the second unfavourably known; and by Theagenes the Theban, a person strongly suspected of treachery; all three creatures of cabal and tools of faction, slaves of interest or voluptuousness, whose characters (especially as they had been appointed to command the only states whose shame, rather than virtue, yet opposed the public enemy) are alone sufficient to prove that Greece was ripe for ruin.

When the day approached for abolishing the tottering independence of those turbulent republics, which their own internal vices, and the arms and intrigues of Philip, had been gradually undermining for twenty-two years, both armies formed in battle array before the rising of the sun. The right wing of the Macedonians was headed by Philip, who judged proper to oppose in person the dangerous fury of the Athenians. His son Alexander, only nineteen years of age, but surrounded by experienced officers, commanded the left wing, which faced the sacred band of the Thebans. The auxiliaries of either army were posted in the centre. In the beginning of the action, the Athenians charged with impetuosity, and repelled the opposing divisions of the enemy; but the youthful ardour of Alexander obliged the Thebans to retire, the sacred band being cut down to a man. The activity of the young prince completed their disorder, and pursued the scattered multitude with his Thessalian cavalry.

Meantime the Athenian generals, too much elated by their first advantage, lost the opportunity to improve it; for having repelled the centre and right wing of the Macedonians, except the phalanx, which was composed of chosen men, and immediately commanded by the king, they, instead of attempting to break this formidable body by attacking it in flank, pressed forward against the fugitives, the insolent Lyficles exclaiming in vain triumph, "Pursue, my brave countrymen! let us drive the cowards

to Macedon." Philip observed this rash folly with contempt; and saying to those around him, "Our enemies know not how to conquer," commanded his phalanx, by a rapid evolution, to gain an adjacent eminence, from which they poured down, firm and collected, on the advancing Athenians, whose confidence of success had rendered them totally insensible to danger. But the irresistible shock of the Macedonian spear converted their fury into despair. Above a thousand fell, two thousand were taken prisoners; the rest escaped by a precipitate and shameful flight. Of the Thebans more were killed than taken. Few of the confederates perished, as they had little share in the action, and as Philip, perceiving his victory to be complete, gave orders to spare the vanquished, with a clemency unusual in that age, and not less honourable to his understanding than his heart; since his humanity thus subdued the minds and gained the affections of his conquered enemies.

According to the Grecian custom, the battle was followed by an entertainment, at which the king, presiding in person, received the congratulations of his friends, and the humble supplications of the Athenian deputies, who craved the bodies of their slain. Their request, which served as an acknowledgment of their defeat, was readily granted; but, before they availed themselves of the permission to carry off their dead, Philip, who with his natural intemperance, had protracted the entertainment till morning, issued forth with his licentious companions to visit the field of battle; their heads crowned with festive garlands, their minds intoxicated with the insolence of wine and victory; yet the sight of the slaughtered Thebans, which first presented itself to their eyes, and particularly the sacred band of friends and lovers, who lay covered with honourable wounds on the spot where they had been drawn up to fight, brought back these insolent spectators to the sentiments of reason and humanity. Philip beheld the awful scene with a mixture of admiration and pity; and, after



after an affecting silence, denounced a solemn curse against those who basely suspected the friendship of such brave men to be tainted with criminal and infamous passions.

But this serious temper of mind did not last long; for, having proceeded to that quarter of the field where the Athenians had fought and fallen, the king abandoned himself to all the levity and littleness of the most petulant joy. Instead of being impressed with a deep sense of his recent danger, and with dutiful gratitude to Heaven for the happiness of his escape, and the importance of his victory, Philip only compared the boastful pretensions with the mean performances of his Athenian enemies; and, struck by this contrast, rehearsed, with the insolent mockery of a buffoon, the pompous declaration of war lately drawn up by the ardent patriotism and too sanguine hopes of Demosthenes. It was on this occasion that the orator Demades at once rebuked the folly, and flattered the ambition, of Philip, by asking him, Why he assumed the character of Theristes, when fortune assigned him the part of Agamemnon?

Whatever might be the effect of this sharp reprimand, it is certain that the King of Macedon indulged not, on any future occasion, a vain triumph over the vanquished. When advised

by his generals to advance into Attica, and to render himself master of Athens, he only replied, "Have I done so much for glory, and shall I destroy the theatre of that glory?" His subsequent conduct corresponded with the moderation of this sentiment. He restored without ransom the Athenian prisoners; who, at departing, having demanded their baggage, were also gratified in this particular; the king pleasantly observing, that the Athenians seemed to think he had not conquered them in earnest. Soon afterwards he dispatched his son Alexander, and Antipater, the most trusted of his ministers, to offer them peace on such favourable terms as they had little reason to expect. They were required to send deputies to the isthmus of Corinth, where, to adjust their respective contingents of troops for the Persian expedition, Philip purposed assembling early in the spring a general convention of all the Grecian states: they were ordered to surrender the isle of Samos, which actually formed the principal station of their fleet, and the main bulwark and defence of all their maritime or insular possessions; but they were allowed to enjoy, unmolested, the Attic territory, with their hereditary form of government.

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 144.

TO form a just estimate of the genius and mental powers of the native Americans, Mr. Jefferson observes, more facts are wanting, and great allowance is to be made for those circumstances of their situation which call for a display of particular talents only. This done, we shall probably find that the Americans are formed, in mind as well as in body, on the same model with the *homo sapiens Europeanus*. The principles of their society forbidding all compulsion, they are to be led to duty and to enterprise by personal influence and persuasion. Hence eloquence in council, bravery and address in war, become the foun-

dations of all consequence with them. To these acquirements all their faculties are directed. Of their bravery and address in war we have multiplied proofs, because we have been the subjects on which they were exercised. Of their eminence in oratory we have fewer examples, because it is displayed chiefly in their own councils. Some, however, we have of very superior lustre. We may challenge the whole orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furnished more eminent, to produce a single passage superior to the speech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to Lord Dunmore

Dunmore when governor of this state. The story is as follows: of which, and of the speech, the authenticity is unquestionable. In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Colonel Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much-injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting any hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river; and, the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and at one fire killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly signalized himself in the war which ensued. In the autumn of the same year a decisive battle was fought at the mouth of the Great Kanaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanees, Mingoes, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan, however, disdained to be seen among the suppliants; but, lest the sincerity of a treaty should be distrusted from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent by a messenger the following speech, to be delivered to Lord Dunmore:—"I appeal to any white man to say if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed, and said, Logan is the friend of white men. I had even thought to have lived with

you, but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it; I have killed many; I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace; but do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? Not one."

To the preceding anecdotes in favour of the American character, may be added the following by Dr. Benjamin Franklin. The Indian men, when young, are hunters and warriors: when old, counsellors; for all their government is by the counsel or advice of the sages. Hence they generally study oratory; the best speaker having the most influence. The Indian women till the ground, dress the food, nurse and bring up the children, and preserve and hand down to posterity the memory of public transactions. These employments of men and women are accounted natural and honourable. Having few artificial wants, they have abundance of leisure for improvement by conversation. Our laborious manner of life, compared with theirs, they esteem slavish and base; and the learning on which we value ourselves, they regard as frivolous and useless.

Having frequent occasions to hold public councils, they have acquired great order and decency in conducting them. The old men sit in the foremost ranks, the warriors in the next, and the women and children in the hindmost. The business of the women is to take exact notice of what passes; imprint it in their memories, for they have no writing, and communicate it to their children. They are the records of the council, and they preserve traditions of the stipulations in treaties a hundred years back; which, when we compare with our writings, we always find exact. He that would speak rises.

The



The rest observe a profound silence. When he has finished, and sits down, they leave him five or six minutes to recollect, that if he has omitted any thing he intended to say, or has any thing to add, he may rise again and deliver it. To interrupt another, even in common conversation, is reckoned highly indecent.

The politeness of these savages in conversation is, indeed, carried to excess; since it does not permit them to contradict or deny the truth of what is asserted in their presence. By this means they indeed avoid disputes; but then it becomes difficult to know their minds, or what impression you make upon them. The missionaries who have attempted to convert them to Christianity, all complain of this as one of the great difficulties of their mission. The Indians hear with patience the truths of the gospel explained to them, and give their usual tokens of assent and approbation; but this by no means implies conviction; it is mere civility.

When any of them come into our towns, our people are apt to crowd round them, gaze upon them, and incommode them where they desire to be private; this they esteem great rudeness, and the effect of the want of instruction in the rules of civility and good manners. "We have," say they, "as much curiosity as you; and, when you come into our towns, we wish for opportunities of looking at you; but for this purpose we hide ourselves behind bushes where you are to pass, and never intrude ourselves into your company."

Their manner of entering one another's villages has likewise its rules. It is reckoned uncivil in travelling strangers to enter a village abruptly, without giving notice of their approach. Therefore, as soon as they arrive within hearing, they stop and hollow, remaining there till invited to enter. Two old men usually come out to them and lead them in. There is in every village a vacant dwelling, called the strangers' house. Here they are placed, while the old men go round from hut to hut, acquainting the inhabitants that strangers are ar-

rived, who are probably hungry and weary; and every one sends them what he can spare of victuals, and skins to repose on. When the strangers are refreshed, pipes and tobacco are brought; and then, but not before, conversation begins, with inquiries who they are, whither bound, what news, &c. and it usually ends with offers of service, if the strangers have occasion for guides, or any necessaries for continuing their journey; and nothing is exacted for the entertainment.

The same hospitality, esteemed among them as a principal virtue, is practised by private persons; of which Conrad Weiser, the interpreter, gave Dr. Franklin the following instance:—He had been naturalized among the Six Nations, and spoke well the Mohock language. In going through the Indian country to carry a message from our governor to the council at Onondaga, he called at the habitation of Canassatego, an old acquaintance, who embraced him, spread furs for him to sit on, placed before him some boiled beans and venison, and mixed some rum and water for his drink. When he was well refreshed, and had lit his pipe, Canassatego began to converse with him: asked how he had fared the many years since they had seen each other, whence he then came, what had occasioned the journey, &c. Conrad answered all his questions; and, when the discourse began to flag, the Indian, to continue it, said, "Conrad, you have lived long among the white people, and know something of their customs; I have have been sometimes at Albany, and have observed, that once in seven days they shut up their shops, and assemble all in the great house; tell me what it is for?—What do they do there?" "They meet there," says Conrad, "to hear and learn good things." "I do not doubt (says the Indian) that they tell you so; they have told me the same: but I doubt the truth of what they say, and I will tell you my reasons. I went lately to Albany to sell my skins, and buy blankets, knives, powder, rum, &c. You know I generally used to deal with

with Hans Hanson; but I was a little inclined this time to try some other merchants. However I called first upon Hans, and asked him what he would give for beaver. He said he could not give more than four shillings a pound; but (says he) I cannot talk on business now; this is the day when we meet together to learn good things, and I am going to the meeting. So I thought to myself, since I cannot do any business to-day, I may as well go to the meeting too; and I went with him.—There stood up a man in black, and began to talk to the people very angrily. I did not understand what he said; but, perceiving that he looked much at me and at Hanson, I imagined he was angry at seeing me there: so I went out, sat down near the house, struck fire, and lit my pipe, waiting till the meeting should break up. I thought too, that the man had mentioned something of beaver, and I suspected that it might be the subject of their meeting. So when they came out, I accosted my merchant.—Well Hans (says I,) I hope you have agreed to give more than four shillings a pound? “No (says he,) I cannot give so much, I cannot give more than three shillings and sixpence.” I then spoke to several other dealers, but they all sung the same song, three and sixpence, three and sixpence. This made it clear to me that my suspicion was right; and that, whatever they pretended of meeting to learn good things, the real purpose was, to consult how to cheat Indians in the price of beaver. Consider but a little, Conrad, and you must be of my opinion. If they met so often to learn good things, they certainly would have learned some before this time. But they are still ignorant. You know our practice. If a white man, in travelling through our country, enters one of our cabins, we all treat him as I treat you; we dry him if he is wet, we warm him if he is cold, and give him meat and drink, that he may allay this thirst and hunger; and we spread soft furs for him to rest and sleep on: we demand nothing in return. But if I go into a white man’s house at Albany, and

ask for victuals and drink, they say, Where is your money? And if I have none, they say, Get out, you Indian dog. You see they have not yet learned those little good things that we need no meeting to be instructed in; because our mothers taught them to us when we were children; and therefore it is impossible their meetings should be, as they say, for any such purpose, or have any such effect; they are only to contrive the cheating of Indians in the price of beaver.”

A question has been started, Whether the peculiarities of the Americans, or the disparity between them and the inhabitants of Europe, afford sufficient grounds for determining them, as some have done, to be a race of men radically different from all others?

In this question, to avoid being tedious, we shall confine ourselves to what has been advanced by Lord Kames; who is of opinion, that there are many different species of men, as well as of other animals; and gives an hypothesis, whereby he pretends his opinion may be maintained in a consistency with Revelation. “If (says he) the only rule afforded by nature for classing animals can be depended on, there are different races of men as well as of dogs: a mastiff differs not more from a spaniel, than a white man from a negro, or a Laplander from a Dane. And, if we have any faith in Providence, it ought to be so. Plants were created of different kinds, to fit them for different climates; and so were brute animals. Certain it is, that all men are not fitted equally for every climate. There is scarcely a climate but what is natural to some men, where they prosper and flourish; and there is not a climate but where some men degenerate. Doth not then analogy lead us to conclude, that, as there are different climates on the face of this globe, so there are different races of men fitted for these different climates?”

“M. Buffon, from the rule, That animals which can procreate together, and whose progeny can also procreate, are of one species; concludes, that all men are of one race or species; and



and endeavours to support that favourite opinion, by ascribing to the climate, to food, or to other accidental causes, all the varieties that are found among men. But is he seriously of opinion, that any operation of climate, or of other accidental cause, can account for the copper colour and smooth chin universal among the Americans; the prominence of the pudenda universal among the Hottentot women; or the black nipple no less universal among the female Samoiedes?—It is in vain to ascribe to the climate the low stature of the Esquimaux, the smallness of their feet, or the overgrown size of their heads. It is equally in vain to ascribe to climate the low stature of the Laplanders, or their ugly visage. The black colour of negroes, thick lips, flat nose, crisped woolly hair, and rank smell, distinguish them from every other race of men. The Abyssinians, on the contrary, are tall and well made, their complexion a brown olive, features well proportioned, eyes large and of a sparkling black, thin lips, a nose rather high than flat. There is no such difference of climate between Abyssinia and Negro-land as to produce these striking differences.

Nor shall our author's ingenious hypothesis concerning the extremities of heat and cold, purchase him impunity with respect to the fallow complexion of the Samoiedes, Laplanders, and Greenlanders. The Finlanders, and northern Norwegians, live in a climate not less cold than that of the people mentioned; and yet are fair beyond other Europeans. I say more, there are many instances of races of people preserving their original colour, in climates very different from their own; but not a single instance of the contrary, as far as I can learn. There have been four complete generations of negroes in Pennsylvania, without any visible change of colour; they continue jet black, as originally. Those who ascribe all to the sun, ought to consider how little probable it is, that the colour it impresses on the parents should be communicated to their infant children, who never saw the

sun: I should be as soon induced to believe with a German naturalist, whose name has escaped me, that the negro colour is owing to an ancient custom in Africa, of dyeing the skin black. Let a European, for years, expose himself to the sun in a hot climate, till he be quite brown; his children will nevertheless have the same complexion with those in Europe. From the action of the sun, is it possible to explain, why a negro, like a European, is born with a ruddy skin, which turns jet black the eighth or ninth day?"

Our author next proceeds to draw some arguments for the existence of different races of men, from the various tempers and dispositions of different nations; which he reckons to be specific differences, as well as those of colour, stature, &c. and, having summed up his evidence, he concludes thus:—"Upon summing up the whole particulars above-mentioned, should one hesitate a moment to adopt the following opinion, were there no counterbalancing evidence, viz. 'That God created many pairs of the human race, differing from each other, both externally and internally; that he fitted those pairs for different climates, and placed each pair in its proper climate; that the peculiarities of the original pairs were preserved entire in their descendants; who, having no assistance but their natural talents, were left to gather knowledge from experience; and, in particular, were left (each tribe) to form a language for itself; that signs were sufficient for the original pairs, without any language but what nature suggests; and that a language was formed gradually as a tribe increased in numbers, and in different occupations, to make speech necessary?' But this opinion, however plausible, we are not permitted to adopt: being taught a different lesson by Revelation, viz. That God created but a single pair of the human species. Though we cannot doubt the authority of Moses, yet his account of the creation of man is not a little puzzling, as it seems to contradict every one of the facts above-mentioned. According to that ac-

count different races of men were not formed, nor were men formed originally for different climates. All men must have spoken the same language, viz. that of our first parents. And what of all seems the most contradictory to that account, is the savage state: Adam, as Moses informs us, was endued by his Maker with an eminent degree of knowledge; and he certainly was an excellent preceptor to his children and their progeny, among whom he lived many generations. Whence then the degeneracy of all men unto the savage state? To account for that dismal catastrophe, mankind must have suffered some terrible convulsion. That terrible convulsion is revealed to us in the history of the tower of Babel, contained in the 11th chapter of Genesis, which is, 'That, for many centuries after the deluge, the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech; that they united to build a city on a plain in the land of Shinar, with a tower, whose top might reach unto heaven; that the Lord, beholding the people to be one, and to have all one language, and that nothing would be restrained from them which they imagined to do, confounded their language that they might not understand one another, and scattered them abroad upon the face of all the earth.' Here light breaks forth in the midst of darkness. By confounding the language of men, and scattering them abroad upon the face of all the earth, they were rendered savages. And to harden them for their new habitations, it was necessary that they should be divided into different kinds, fitted for different climates. Without an immediate change of constitution, the builders of Babel could not possibly have subsisted in the burning region of Guinea, nor in the frozen region of Lapland; houses not being prepared, nor any other convenience to protect them against a destructive climate."

We may first remark, on his lordship's hypothesis, that it is evidently incomplete; for, allowing the human race to have been divided into different species at the confusion of lan-

guages, and that each species was adapted to a particular climate; by what means were they to get to the climates proper for them, or how were they to know that such climates existed? How was an American, for instance, when languishing in an improper climate at Babel, to get to the land of the Amazons, or the banks of the Oroonoko, in his own country? or how was he to know that these places were more proper for him than others?—If, indeed, we take the scripture phrase, "The Lord scattered them abroad upon the face of all the earth," in a certain sense, we may account for it. If we suppose that the different species were immediately carried off by a whirlwind, or other supernatural means, to their proper countries, the difficulty will vanish: but, if this is his lordship's interpretation, it is certainly a very singular one.

Before entering upon a consideration of the particular arguments used by our author for proving the diversity of species in the human race, it will be proper to lay down the following general principles, which may serve as axioms. 1. When we assert a multiplicity of species in the human race; we bring in a supernatural cause to solve a natural phenomenon: for these species are supposed to be the immediate work of the Deity. 2. No person has a right to call any thing the immediate effect of omnipotence, unless by express revelation from the Deity, or from a certainty that no natural cause is sufficient to produce the effect. The reason is plain. The Deity is invisible, and so are many natural causes: when we see an effect therefore, of which the cause does not manifest itself, we cannot know whether the immediate cause is the Deity, or an invisible natural power. An example of this we have in the phenomena of thunder and earthquakes, which were often ascribed immediately to the Deity, but are now discovered to be the effects of electricity. 3. No person can assert natural causes to be insufficient to produce such and such effects, unless he perfectly knows all these causes  
and



and the limits of their power in all possible cases; and this no man has ever known, or can know.

By keeping in view these principles, which we hope are self-evident, we shall easily see Lord Kames's arguments to consist entirely in a *petitio principii*.—In substance they are all reduced to this single sentence: "Natural philosophers have been hitherto unsuccessful in their endeavours to account for the differences observed among mankind, therefore these differences cannot be accounted for from natural causes."

His lordship, however, tells us in the passages already quoted, that "a mastiff differs not more from a spaniel, than a Laplander from a Dane;" that "it is vain to ascribe to climate the low stature of the Laplanders, or their ugly visage."—Yet, in a note on the word Laplanders, he subjoins, that, "by late accounts it appears, that the Laplanders are only degenerated Tartars; and that they and the Hungarians originally sprung from the same breed of men, and from the same country."—The Hungarians are generally handsome and well made, like Danes, or like other people. The Laplanders, he tells us, differ as much from them as a mastiff from a spaniel. Natural causes, therefore, according to Lord Kames himself, may cause two individuals of the same species of mankind to differ from each other as much as a mastiff does from a spaniel.

While we are treating this subject of colour, it may not be amiss to observe, that a very remarkable difference of colour may accidentally happen to individuals of the same species. In the isthmus of Darien, a singular race of men have been discovered.—They are of low stature, of a feeble make, and incapable of enduring fatigue. Their colour is a dead milk white; not resembling that of fair people among Europeans, but without any blush or sanguine complexion. Their skin is covered with a fine hairy down of a chalky white; the hair of their heads, their eyebrows, and eye-lashes, are of the same hue. Their eyes are of a singular form, and so weak, that they

can hardly bear the light of the sun; but they see clearly by moon-light, and are most active and gay in the night. Among the negroes of Africa, as well as the natives of the Indian islands, a small number of these people are produced. They are called Albinos by the Portuguese, and Kackerlakes by the Dutch.

This race of men is not indeed permanent; but it is sufficient to shew, that mere colour is by no means the characteristic of a certain species of mankind. The difference of colour in these individuals is undoubtedly owing to a natural cause. To constitute, then, a race of men of this colour, it would only be necessary that this cause, which at present is merely accidental, should become permanent, and we cannot know but it may be so in some parts of the world.

If a difference in colour is no characteristic of a different species of mankind, much less can a difference in stature be thought so.—In the southern parts of America, there is said to be a race of men exceeding the common size in height and strength. This account, however, is doubted of by some: but be that as it will, it is certain that the Esquimaux are as much under the common size as the Patagonians are said to be above it. Nevertheless we are not to imagine, that either of these are specific differences; seeing the Laplanders and Hungarians are both of the same species, and yet the former are generally almost a foot shorter than the latter; and if a difference of climate, or other accidental causes, can make the people of one country a foot shorter than the common size of mankind, undoubtedly accidental causes of a contrary nature may make those of another country a foot taller than other men.

Though the sun has undoubtedly a share in the production of the swarthy colour of those nations which are most exposed to its influence; yet the manner of living to which people are accustomed, their victuals, their employment, &c. must contribute very much to a difference of complexion. There are some kinds of colouring roots,

roots, which, if mixed with the food of certain animals, will tinge even their bones of a yellow colour.—It cannot be thought any great degree of credulity to infer from this, that, if these roots were mixed with the food of a white man, they might, without a miracle, tinge his skin of a yellow colour. If a man and woman were both to use food of this kind for a length of time, till they became as it were radically dyed, it is impossible, without the intervention of Divine power, or of some extraordinary natural cause, but their children must be of the same colour; and, were the same kind of food to be continued for several generations, it is more than probable that this colour might resist the continued use of any kind of food whatever.

Of this indeed we have no examples, but we have an example of changes much more wonderful.—It is allowed on all hands, that it is more easy to work a change upon the body of a man, or any other animal, than upon his mind. A man that is naturally choleric may indeed learn to prevent the bad effects of his passion by reason, but the passion itself will remain as immutable as his colour.—But to reason in a manner similar to Lord Kames; though a man should be naturally choleric, or subject to any other passion, why should his children be so?—This way of reasoning, however plausible, is by no means conclusive, as will appear from the following passage in Mr. Forster's Voyage.

June the 9th. "The officers, who could not yet relish their salt provisions after the refreshments of New Zealand, had ordered their black dog to be killed: this day, therefore, we dined for the first time on a leg of it roasted; which tasted so exactly like mutton, that it was absolutely undistinguishable. In our cold countries, where animal food is so much used, and where to be carnivorous perhaps lies in the nature of men, or is indispensably necessary to the preservation of their health and strength, it is strange that there should exist a Jewish aversion to dogs-flesh, when hogs, the most uncleanly

of all animals, are eaten without scruple. Nature seems expressly to have intended them for this use, by making their offspring so very numerous, and their increase so quick and frequent. It may be objected, that the exalted degree of instinct which we observe in our dogs inspires us with great unwillingness to kill and eat them. But it is owing to the time we spend on the education of dogs, that they acquire those eminent qualities which attach them so much to us. The natural qualities of our dogs may receive a wonderful improvement; but education must give its assistance, without which the human mind itself, though capable of an immense expansion, remains in a very contracted state. In New Zealand, and (according to former accounts of voyages) in the tropical isles of the South Sea, the dogs are the most stupid dull animals imaginable, and do not seem to have the least advantage in point of sagacity over our sheep, which are commonly made the emblems of silliness. In the former country they are fed upon fish, in the latter on vegetables, and both these diets may have served to alter their disposition. Education may perhaps likewise graft new instincts: the New Zealand dogs are fed on the remains of their master's meals; they eat the bones of other dogs; and the puppies become true cannibals from their birth. We had a young New Zealand puppy on-board, which had certainly had not an opportunity of tasting any thing but the mother's milk before we purchased it: however, it eagerly devoured a portion of the flesh and bones of the dog on which we dined to-day; while several others of the European breed, taken on-board at the Cape, turned from it without touching it.

"On the 4th of August, a young bitch, of the terrier breed, taken on-board at the Cape of Good Hope, and covered by a spaniel, brought ten young ones, one of which was dead. The New Zealand dog above-mentioned, which devoured the bones of the roasted dog, now fell upon the dead puppy, and ate of it with a ravenous



venous appetite. This is a proof how far education may go in producing and propagating new instincts in animals. European dogs are never fed on the meat of their own species, but rather seem to abhor it. The New Zealand dogs, in all likelihood, are trained up from their earliest age to eat the remains of their master's meals: they are therefore used to feed upon fish, their own species, and perhaps human flesh; and what was only owing to habit at first, may have become instinct by length of time. This was remarkable in our cannibal dog; for he came on-board so young, that he could not have been weaned long enough to have acquired a habit of devouring his own species, and much less of eating human flesh; however, one of our seamen having cut his finger, held it out to the dog, who fell to greedily, licked it, and then began to bite it."

From this account it appears, that even the instincts of animals are not unchangeable by natural causes; and, if these causes are powerful enough to change the dispositions of succeeding generations, much more may we suppose them capable of making an alteration in the external appearance.

We are not here necessitated to confine ourselves to the observations

made on brute animals. The Franks are an example of the production of one general character, formed by some natural cause from a mixture of many different nations.—They were a motley multitude, consisting of various German nations dwelling beyond the Rhine: who, uniting in defence of their common liberty, took thence the name of Franks; the word frank signifying in their language, as it still does in ours, free. Among them the following nations were mentioned, viz. the Actuarii, Chamavi, Brueteri, Sali, Fritii, Chausi, Amfarii, and Catti. We cannot suppose one character to belong to so many different nations; yet it is certain, that the Franks were nationally characterized as treacherous; and so deeply seems this quality to have been rooted in their nature, that their descendants have not got quite free of it in fifteen hundred years. It is in vain, then, to talk of different races of men, either from their colour, size, or prevailing dispositions, seeing we have undeniable proofs that all these may be changed, in the most remarkable manner, by natural causes, without any miraculous interposition of the Deity.

[To be continued.]

#### THE SIBYL.—AN ORIENTAL TALE.

**I**N early times, before the Christian sacrifice had taken from evil spirits their power to hurt mankind, a matron of the East, followed by two fair daughters, went to the shore of the tempestuous sea, to supplicate the fabled Neptune. "Thou, powerful god, who swallowedst up the father, spare the son! Lo! I submit. The widow stands resigned; but, hear the mother." Her bare knees pressed the rock, she bowed before the wave that roared against it; and, as she prayed, she paid the angry deity the tribute of her tears. The sea had robbed her of her lord; but piety had taught her resignation. She kissed the beach again, and was departing; when there appeared upon the rising wave,

erect and unconcerned, a human figure; the habit spoke her female: age sat upon her brow, but, free from all infirmities, commanded only reverence; her dry feet floated on the water's surface; her silver hair played negligently in the storm; her hand was on her heart, her eye on heaven. The daughters shrieked; the parent knew the form as it approached, and, bending to the earth, hailed the Erythrean sibyl.

She waved her hand; and the sea ceased its tumult: "Amia," said she, "thy virtue has reached heaven.—Danger is near! Children, remember!—The virtue of a daughter is obedience: the brightest jewel in a virgin's crown is modesty!" She vanished.

vanished. The sea resumed its roaring, and the broad sun was now half sunk beneath the billows.

No moon could light them homeward: the sea-storm brought its thunder to the land; and, as they stood behind a ruined tower for shelter from its fury, they heard the muttered sounds of midnight rites, and horrid incantations—a gleam of lightning shewed at once the place. Within an ample circle, surrounded by dark grass, the works of fancied fairies, stood a decrepid creature, busied in his infernal sacrifices; nine times he walked about the fatal circle, and each blade blackened where his fell foot came: in the midst he raised a pile of mouldering coffins, and of broken gibbets; and covered it with the heart of an old oak, just rent by thunder. Upon the heap he laid a human body, warm from its sepulchre; and, with a blue flame which his breath raised from the ground, he lighted the strange heap.

Till then the ceremonies were but seen imperfectly, as the interrupted flashings from the clouds gave opportunity: now all was evident; the infernal ceremony shone with its own light; and, as the flame advanced, the haggard wizard walked his round, repeating secret prayers.

The flames distinctly shewed the body they were to consume; a youth of perfect beauty, who seemed only to sleep amidst the fire; at length it reached him, and they saw him burn, by slow degrees, to ashes; then, with a dreadful shriek, the forcerer leaped into the fire; a thick smoke rose, darker than night, and spread itself abroad till it filled all the circle. After a while it cleared, and from the glowing embers of the fire there rose again the youth who had been burnt. Deep music issued from the circle's verge, and to its solemn notes the figure slowly ascended. The unwrinkled forehead and the rosy cheeks, the lips of coral and the golden hair, rose from the shapeless ashes in full beauty. They turned: for modesty refused their seeing more; but in a little time the music ceased, and the new-born youth came up, and stood before them, with an easy grace,

clothed in an azure robe, frudded with silver stars. The mother trembled; for the sibyl's warning yet rung in her affrighted ears. The daughters, young and unexperienced, stood charmed with the youth's beauty. He told them he was Jove; he wooed them to his arms; and added, they should walk the Empyrean heaven.

The mother, bold in the sibyl's sacred lesson, charged him with imposture; but the girls were still in raptures. A cloudy chariot raised them from the earth, and, as they rode along the air, they thought they had reached the very height the flatterer promised. They listened to his soothing words. The pensive mother frowned. She told them poets feigned; for gods were holy. The favour of the sibyl gave her courage, and her maternal love inspired a sacred eloquence. They doubted as she spoke. At length the elder was convinced. She joined her parent in her arguments; but inconsiderate youth betrayed the other. This told them, "Power was power, and splendour splendour: that he, who could thus waft them through the air, had all the might of Jove; and there could be no heaven if it were not their present residence."

She gave her lily hand, trembling, yet resolute, to her new lover. The mother shrieked, and sunk upon her knees, in vain. Aerial ministers served in a gay repast. The lover and the loved sat down together. The mother and her other child refused. Ambrosia was the food on plates of emeralds, and nectar sparkled in the adamantine bowls. But nature pleaded; and the favoured mistress would not be blessed except her mother shared. Anguish tore the parent's heart. She would not sit; she begged her not to taste; and, when the fond girl doubted, charged her on her obedience. But she was no more heard. The lover once again invited both; and, when refused, he frowned, and bade them thirst, and pine for ever, in unpitied wretchedness, and unregarded envy.

A dungeon now rose in an obscure corner of the place. The mother and the daughter were thrust into it  
by



by fiends. Heat burnt them up, and they were perishing with thirst, while the abandoned sister, as she drank her full bowl, called to them: "Now who is in the right? Now tell me, is obedience to her or him the better?" The sister blushed. The mother only answered, "See to-morrow."

Full revelry and joy prevailed at the detested board: the sister, still invited, still despised it. The mother gazed on them with silent sorrow. At length, a crimson canopy stretched its wide curtains, and disclosed the bridal bed. The pair advanced towards it; and new despair gave once more the afflicted parent words. She prayed, and the commanded; both in vain. The infatuated girl approached the bed, and the lover followed. The spirits disappeared; the velvet bed shrunk to a corner of

a withered hedge. The splendour and the power at once were over. The youthful Jove now stood in his own form, a withered forcerer; and at the instant appeared the sibyl, leading in her hand the sovereign of the country. She told the story. She took for ever from the wizard his former power of magic; and gave the virtuous daughter to the king. The mother saw her empress of the East, while the deluded disobedient remained, what she had made herself, the bride of beggary and miserable age.

The lesson reaches all. The world allures; and youth is unexperienced. Obedience to a parent is the path to happiness. Blessings attend on this; and misery never fails to accompany the other.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### CONJUGAL AFFECTION.

**L**eonidas, king of Sparta, suspecting a conspiracy was formed against him, fled to the temple of Minerva for shelter, whereupon Cleombrutus, his son-in-law, seized the government. When Leonidas was informed of this, he made his escape, taking his daughter along with him, who chose rather to fly with her father than reign with her husband. Some time after, Leonidas being restored to the throne, he advanced at the head of a band of soldiers to the temple where Cleombrutus, upon this change of affairs, had, himself, fled for refuge. He there reproached him with great warmth for assuming the regal power, in violation of the ties of affinity between them, and for expelling him from his own country in so ignominious a manner. Cleombrutus, who had nothing to answer to these reproaches, continued seated in a profound silence, and with an aspect which sufficiently testified his confusion. His wife Chelonida stood near with her two children at her feet. She had been equally unfortunate as a wife and a daughter; but was equally faithful in each of those

capacities, and had always adhered to the unfortunate side. All those who were then present melted into tears at so moving a sight, and were struck with admiration at the virtue and tenderness of Chelonida, and the amiable force of conjugal love. The unfortunate princess, pointing to her mourning habit and dishevelled tresses, "Believe me, O, my father!" said she, "this habit of woe, which I now wear, this dejection which now appears in my countenance, and these sorrows in which you see me sunk, are not the effects of that compassion I entertain for Cleombrutus; but the sad remains of my affliction for the calamities you sustained in your flight from Sparta. On what, alas! shall I now resolve? While you reign for the future in Sparta, and triumph over the enemies who opposed you, shall I continue to live in the desolate state to which you see me reduced? Or, is it my duty to array myself in robes of royalty and magnificence, when I behold the husband I received from you in the flower of my youth on the point of perishing by your dagger? Should he be unable to disarm your resentment,

and

and move your soul to compassion by the tears of his wife and children, permit me to assure you that he will be punished with more severity for his imprudence than was even intended by yourself, when he shall see a wife who is so dear to him expiring at his feet; for you are not to think, that, in my present condition, I will ever consent to out-live him. What appearance shall I make among the Spartan ladies after my inability to inspire my husband with compassion for my father; or to soften my father into pity for my husband? What, indeed, shall I appear to them, but a daughter and a wife, always afflicted and condemned by her nearest relations?" Chelonida, at the conclusion of these words, reclined her cheek on that of Cleombrutus; while with her eyes, that spoke her sorrow in her tears, she cast a languid look on those who were present. Loenidas, after a few moments discourse with his friends, ordered Cleombrutus to rise, and immediately to quit Sparta; but earnestly importuned his daughter to continue there, and not forsake a father who gave her such a peculiar proof of tenderness as to spare the life of her husband. His solicitations were, however, ineffectual; and the moment Cleombrutus rose from his seat, she placed one of her children in his arms, and clasped the other in her own; and when she had offered up her prayers to the goddesses, and kissed the altar, she became a voluntary exile with her husband. How extremely affecting was this spectacle, and how worthy the admiration of all ages is such a model of conjugal affection! If the heart of Cleombrutus, says Plutarch, was not entirely depraved by vain-glory, and a boundless ambition to reign, he would have been sensible that even banishment itself, with so virtuous a companion, was preferable to the condition of a sovereign.

Sabinus, having engaged the interest of the Gauls, caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor of Rome; but, being defeated, he fled to his country house, and set it on fire, in order to raise a report that he had

perished. This scheme answered his end, for he was there believed to have suffered a voluntary death. But in the mean time, he lay concealed with his treasures (for he was immensely rich) in a cave, which he had caused to be dug in a solitary place, and which was known only to two of his freed men, upon whose fidelity he could depend. He might easily have withdrawn into Germany; but he could not prevail on himself to abandon his wife, whom he passionately loved. Sabinus, that no one might doubt of his death, did not, for some time, even undeceive his wife, who solemnized his exequies with great pomp, bewailed him with many tears, and at last, no longer able to bear the loss of a husband for whom she had the sincerest affection, resolved not to out-live him, and began to abstain from all food. This news alarmed Sabinus; and therefore, by means of Martialis, one of his freed men, he informed her that he was still alive, and acquainted her with the place where he lay concealed, desiring her at the same time to suppress her joy, lest the secret might thence be betrayed. Empona heard the relation with inexpressible pleasure, and, pretending business in the country, flew to her husband. The cave to her was then preferable to a palace, for there only she was happy. She went frequently to see him, and sometimes contrived to stay whole weeks unsuspected. She had even two children by him, who were born and brought up in the cave. When at Rome, she continued to bewail him as dead, and concealed the whole with exemplary fidelity and wonderful address; nay, she found means to convey him into the city, upon what motive I know not; and from thence back to his cave, so well disguised that he was by no one known. But after he had passed nine years in this manner, he was at length discovered some persons who narrowly watched his wife, upon her frequently absenting herself from her own house, and followed her to the cave without being discovered. Sabinus was immediately seized, and sent to Rome loaded



loaded with chains, together with his wife, who, throwing herself at the emperor's feet, and presenting to him her two tender infants, endeavoured with her tears and entreaties to move him to compassion. Vespasian, the emperor, could not help weeping at so affecting an object: nevertheless, he condemned both her and her husband, and caused them soon after to be executed.

Cavades, king of the Persians, being deposed and imprisoned by his subjects, his queen, who alone remained attached to him in all his misfortunes, never failed to bring him necessities with her own hands, though she was not permitted to see him. Observing the keeper of the castle enamoured with her beauty, she so effectually soothed his passion as to gain access to her husband, and thereby procured his enlargement: for staying, as she often did, late in the evening, she dressed the king in her own clothes, in which he went out undiscovered, and, having put on his, remained in his stead. As she pretended to be sick, and not to leave her bed for some days, the cheat was not discovered till Cavades had time enough to make his escape. He fled to the king of the Euthalites, by whose assistance he was restored to his throne and kingdom.

Cyrus, king of Persia, had taken captive the young prince of Armenia, together with his beautiful and blooming princess, whom he had lately mar-

ried, and of whom he was passionately fond. When both were brought to the tribunal, Cyrus asked the prince, what he would give to be re-instated in his kingdom? He answered, with an air of indifference, "That, as for his crown and his own liberty, he valued them at a very low rate. But, if Cyrus would restore his beloved princess to her native dignity and hereditary possessions, he should infinitely rejoice, and would pay, (this he uttered with tenderness and ardor,) would willingly pay, his life for the purchase."—When all the prisoners were dismissed with freedom, it is impossible to be expressed how they were charmed with their royal benefactor; some celebrated his martial accomplishments, some applauded his social virtues, all were prodigal of their praise, and lavish in grateful acknowledgment. And you, said the prince, addressing himself to his bride, what think you of Cyrus? I did not observe him, said the princess.—Not observe him! upon what then was your attention fixed? Upon that dear and generous man, who declared, "that he would purchase my liberty at the expence of his own life."

What an idea of chastity; and at the same time, what a wonderful simplicity and delicacy of thought are here in the answer of the young princess, who had no eyes but for her husband.

#### DOMESTIC CONFIDENCE AND FAMILY DISTRUST.

A domestic confidence is the greatest blessing, so is family distrust the greatest curse. If those who are connected by the ties of nature cannot live in harmony, why should we be astonished at external discord? The chain of relative affection is so strong, that it is not easy to conceive how it can be broken; and yet we find that the hardest bodies may be dissolved, and that strength may be overcome by weakness. The most timid disposition may be rendered violent by insult, and the most rugged temper may be melted by love.

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It is astonishing from what trifles the most irreconcilable resentments arise. It is notorious, that more disputes have proceeded from friendship ill requited, than what have been derived from hate. The secret abuse of confidence inspires revenge; whereas the open malice of an enemy begets contempt.

Although the ills of life be sufficiently numerous, yet we are constantly adding to their accumulation. We are dissatisfied with we know not what; we fancy insults which we have not received; and, not being

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willing to be pleased ourselves, we endeavour to destroy the comfort of others, and leave the sting of the bee without a deposit of its sweets. When passion gets the better of reason, we often make those miserable whom it is our duty to render happy; and, the stream of family comfort being thus disturbed, we trace up its pollution to the fountain-head, which, bubbling up with fretful tears, can never become pellucid or reposed. From gentle zephyrs storms arise; and what may be deemed a trifling misunderstanding at the moment of offence may blow into rage, and become a hurricane, which even the sunshine of good-humour, and the breezy voice of friendship, can never appease.

The common intercourse of life requires management—an habitual steadiness of mind, a serenity of temper, a candour of heart, should be the incentives of our pursuits, and the objects of our aim; and, as these amiable gifts may be acquired by perseverance and study, the attainment of such objects should make us patient in the chase, that we may be victorious at the goal.

The little accidental contentions of life are the most teasing; for it is not the crush of one great and overwhelming calamity that preys upon the mind, but a multiplicity of ceaseless vexations, that, like a worm, corrodes by degrees, and at last destroys the heart. It is not a large expanse of waters, but an accumulation of rills, that make a torrent, which, sweeping on with unseen auxiliaries, and undermining fury, occasions death and desolation in its course. The petty disappointments and losses in life may, by negligence, become not only overpowering, but irremediable: large debts increase from interest, that perpetual motion—the snow-ball gathers as it runs, and from a clod becomes a mountain, and, according to the difficulty it meets with in its accumulation, in the same reverse proportion the avalanche is disrupted, and covers the valleys with ruin and despair.

The jealousy of preference is soon alarmed, the resentment of predi-

lection soon confirmed; and those impressions which, from prejudice, increase suspicion, are not easily removed or overcome. The state of the mind, at such a time, is like a building that shakes with frequent earthquakes, when every oscillation menaces an overthrow, although it doth not fall; and hence increases the imaginary danger, by the concomitant terrors of suspense. The bosom that is jealous without a cause, will be hardly sincere from conviction; and he who envies the partiality shown to another, because he has not himself the charms of recommendation, is a viper that would sting, because he cannot elude.

He who disturbs the placid bosom of contentment by torrents of passion and abuse, is like a rush of waters that overflows a country, for want of a dam to restrain its inundations; or is like a wind which, long pent up, is felt to sweep abroad with double fury and devastation.

If a man act from generosity and confidence, to that confidence and generosity how little is returned! The tenderness of one bosom is not always repelled by the sincerity of another. A father cannot always command the duty of a child; for how often do we see that heart brought down, by unkindness, with sorrow to the grave, which through life had overflowed with the most excessive affection.

If we descend to the more mechanical, though not less respectable, cements of this our mortal existence, we shall still find that confidence is the principal chain that connects our happiness in it. If we want a counsellor to direct our labours, and confirm our thoughts in the momentous concerns and painful trials of an active life; if an avenger of our insulted memory and name, we shall find them in the zeal and courage of a faithful and a disinterested friend; and, if a comforter in private cares and pressing emergencies, whose tenderness will divert our gloom by the smile of patience, the tear of pity, and the modesty of love; who will cheer us with hope, and reconcile us to despair? These, all these, we shall find in



in the inclination and power of a sensible, a beloved, and an amiable, wife. Celestial influence! what are your resources, ye glittering slaves of sunshine and of shade, compared to those I have attempted to describe? It is not in the public, but in the private, walks of life that these blossoms set and ripen into fruit, or the delicacy of their flavour is prized. Observe the child of humble content and downy peace. The morn that rises with cheerfulness serenely her brow; the rose of health impaints her cheeks, those cheeks be-dimpled

with the smiles of innocence; and, while the pleasures of youth dart a radiance through the eye, the eyelash of reserve restrains its fire, and sends its refulgence to enlighten the virtues of the heart. The exterior signet impresses a value upon the gem within; that gem, a quiet conscience, unrepining and unrepined, where all the storms of life are lulled into a calm, and all the harsh and discordant sounds of nature cease, and sink at once to silence and repose: and such a repose, who shall dare to disturb, or venture to alarm?

## THE GHOST.

NEAR the close of the month of July last, the ship *Brook*, Samuel Oliver commander, left the Island of Antigua, on her passage for Europe. The vessel had not been many days at sea, before one of the seamen, on his watch, was alarmed with the appearance of something, which he fancied to be no other than a ghost: he communicated what he had seen, or supposed to have seen, to his messmate; and we need not observe that seamen are as timid as any men in the world, when matters occur which raise that superstition in their minds, so generally allowed to be little short of natural in them. A few nights had now passed since the terror-stricken sailor had divulged his tale, when he, as well as his fellows on the watch, were alarmed by the self-same apparition: it moved, according to the account they gave to the chief mate on the relief of the watch, in slow pace all round the fore-castle; and, after continuing some time there, vanished behind the windlass. The mate affected to laugh at the account: nevertheless he had his fears; and it was agreed on that himself, together with the boatswain and several other stout-hearted fellows, should assist the watch to discover, if possible, what it was which had so much alarmed the greatest part of the crew. The main deck was accordingly walked by these heroes, night after night, without the ghost making its appearance. Having been upwards of twenty days at sea,

the weather in the night became boisterous: the winds blew; the thunder rolled awfully, and the lightning flashed terrifically vivid; all hands were called up to assist the ship by their labours; and in the midst of this their professional employ the ghost again made its appearance; and it was now seen by the whole crew, (the captain excepted:) one of those employed on the quarter-deck rushed forwards towards the supposed phantom; and at the instant that it seemed within his grasp, a flash of lightning of the most tremendous sort covered it from his sight: this was seen by the men on the yards, who were reefing the several sails, and who, one and all, declared it could be no other than the devil, as he sunk from the attempt of the sailor, in a flash of fire. Several of the sailors were positive it could be no other than the evil spirit, for reasons to them the most sufficient; that they missed their beef, their biscuit, and their grog, whenever all hands were called on deck; that they had also heard that ghosts could neither eat nor drink; and what confirmed them stronger in their belief of it being no other than Lucifer himself was, from its vanishing the preceding night in a flame of fire; and some of them were not wanting to give it as their opinion, that he had raised the storm.

The affair of the ghost had now become serious, and the mate accordingly determined on acquainting the

the captain with the whole business on the following day: this being accordingly done, the captain heard the relation with some surprise, and communicated the mysterious account to his passengers, asking them at the same time their advice. It was agreed upon to walk the deck that night, and there form their opinion of the truth of the report: they began their march about ten, and continued it until the break of day: the ghost or devil did not appear; and bringing to mind what has been said by some of our greatest poets, that the troubled spirits haunt our region but while darkness and obscurity fill the void, they retired to their beds, probably well satisfied with the event of their watch. The captain and passengers now put down the whole story as no other than the effect of imagination in the crew: but the men were not to be thus amused out of an opinion which they all firmly believed; and they still persisted in what they had said and seen: what served to heighten their credulity still more, was an event which had taken place but a few hours before; "two blankets actually gone from the hammocks." This excited new curiosity; and the captain, finding it would be difficult to prevail over their prejudices, offered a reward to him or them that would discover who or what this devil was. A fellow who had, through the whole of this singular affair, appeared less alarmed than the rest, was the first to undertake the business; and the others of the ship's company readily agreed to assist in the discovery. To work they went, when, after having moved upwards of forty hogsheads of sugar, the spirit was discovered asleep in an empty water-butt: it was no other than a negro man, of about twenty years of age, who, with a view of recovering his

liberty, had there secreted himself. His story, when brought into the cabin, was nearly as follows:—That he belonged to a Mr. Alexander Coates, ship-builder in the town of St. John's; that his master having sent him in a canoe to get turtle-grass, and put it on-board this vessel, he accordingly did so; and, it being the dusk of the evening when he delivered it, a thought struck him, that such an opportunity would probably never offer again for his getting to England: he therefore slipped down a rope which was hanging over the stern, put his jacket into the canoe, and, keeping hold of the stern rope, cut his boat adrift, and ascended the vessel undiscovered. He now crept down the fore-hatchway, and got into the hold, where, finding the empty water-cask, he took out its head, and herein he secreted himself during the space of thirty-three days, seven of which were while the ship lay in St. John's harbour, (during which time the canoe had been picked up, and the man supposed to be drowned,) and twenty-six at sea. His manner of living was, when the sailors were all on deck, he would steal out, and pick up what he could find, and carry it to his tub; and also turn out at night, when he thought all quiet, to breathe the refreshing air. After the discovery he worked as a seaman, having, previous to this trip, made two voyages to Liverpool; and he was named by the sailors Jack Ghost; and these brave fellows seemed rather diverted than hurt by the consternation he had thrown them into. The captain wished to have conveyed him again to his master: but the air of England blows sweeter over a negro than that of the West-Indies; so that he wished him a long good b'ye at Gravesend.

#### ON STABILITY OF CHARACTER.

**I**F I can speak experimentally to any moral benefit in growing older, it is, that increasing years augment the strength and firmness of the character. This is a part of the natural

progress of the human system, and is probably as much owing to physical as to moral causes. The diminution of mobility and irritability in the animal frame, must fortify it against external



ternal impressions, and give it a greater stability in its action and re-action. So far, however, as this is a corporeal process, it cannot be anticipated; and the young must be exhorted to wait patiently for this advantage, till it comes to them in due course of time, to compensate for the many privations they must undergo. But if an inquiry into the purely moral causes of the opposite defects can suggest moral means of obviating them in some measure at any period, it will certainly be worth the pains; for a due degree of firmness and consistency is absolutely essential in forming a respectable character. Let us, then, enter into such an investigation.

On retracing my own feelings, I find that the first and principal cause of juvenile weakness is false shame. The shame of being singular,—the shame of lying under restraints from which others are free,—the shame of appearing ungenteel,—are all acutely felt by young persons in general, and require strong principle or much native firmness of temper to surmount. Most of the defections from parties and sects in which persons have been educated, originate from this sensation, which is perhaps more seductive to the young, than even interest to the old. It first makes them hesitate to avow themselves, and desirous of passing undistinguished in mixed companies; it next leads them to petty deceptions and compliances; and finishes with making entire converts of them, frequently with an affectation of extraordinary contempt of those whom they have forsaken, in order to prevent all suspicion of their having been of the number. The best guard against this conduct is a strong impression of its meanness. If young men were brought to discern that cowardice and servility were the chief agents in this progress, their native generosity of spirit would powerfully oppose such a degradation of character. Still more might be gained by accustoming them to set a value upon the circumstance of standing apart from the mass of mankind, and to esteem as honourable every distinction produced by the exercise of freedom in thinking and acting. I

am aware that there is a danger to be avoided on this side too, and that the pride of singularity is equally ridiculous and disgusting in a young man. But this, I believe, is not the leading error of the times; which is rather a propensity to submit implicitly to the decisions of fashion, and to value one's self more upon following, than opposing, the manners and opinions of the majority.

The fear of offending is another snare to young minds, which, though commonly originating in an amiable delicacy of character, must in some degree be overcome before a manly steadiness of conduct can be supported. Many instances have I known, in which the species of adulation, called by the Latins *assentatio*, has been occasioned by a mere dread of giving offence by contradiction. But such a habit of assenting to every thing that may be advanced, is in danger of subverting all our principles; and we may come to practise from artifice that complaisance which we perceived to be so agreeable, when only the consequence of modest deference. This is an evil attending the practice, otherwise so instructive, of frequenting the company of seniors and superiors; and it is only to be counteracted by a mixture of free society with equals.

Akin to this is the fear of giving pain. It inspires an insuperable repugnance to the delivery of disagreeable truths, or the undertaking of unpleasant offices; things which in the commerce of life are often necessary to the discharge of our duty. In particular, one whose office it is to apply medicine to the mind, must, as well as the physician of the body, conquer his reluctance to give temporary pain for the sake of affording lasting benefit. Excess of politeness deviates into this weakness. It makes no distinction between saying an unpleasant thing and saying a rude one. A course of sentimental reading is likewise apt to foster such an extreme delicacy of feeling, as makes the painful duties of the heart insupportable. The most effectual remedy in this state of morbid sensibility, is an unavoidable necessity of mixing in  
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the business of the world, and encountering all its roughnesses. To persons of a retired condition, the best substitute is strengthening the mind with dictates of a masculine and heightened philosophy.

The desire of pleasing all mankind, which is the counterpart of the two former principles, is a fertile source of weakness and mutability in some of the best dispositions. It is the quality commonly termed good nature, and perhaps is in some measure national to Englishmen. Young persons are not only themselves prone to fall into excess of easy good nature, but it is the quality that most readily captivates them in the choice of an early friend. It is impossible here to blame the disposition, although it be highly important to guard against the indulgence of it; for it leads to the very same imbecility of conduct that false shame and cowardice do. In the course of our duties we are almost as frequently called upon to undergo the censure and enmity of mankind, as to cultivate their friendship and good opinion. Cicero, in enumerating the causes which induce men to desert their duty, very properly mentions an unwillingness "*fuscipere inimicitias*," to take up enmities. This is, indeed, one of the severest trials of our attachment to principle; but it is what we must be ready to sustain when occasion requires, or renounce every claim to a strong and elevated character.

When young in life, I derived much satisfaction from thinking that I had not an enemy in the world. A too

great facility in giving up my own interest, when it involved a point of contention, and a habit of assenting to, or at least not opposing, the various opinions I heard, had, in fact, preserved me from direct hostilities with any mortal, and, I had reason to believe, had conciliated for me the passive regard of most of those with whom I was acquainted. But no sooner did different views of things, and a greater firmness of temper, incite in me an open declaration respecting points which I thought highly interesting to mankind, than I was made sensible, that my former source of satisfaction must be exchanged for self-approbation and the esteem of a few. The event gave me at first some surprise and more concern; for I can truly say, that, in my own breast, I found no obstacle to the point of agreeing to differ. It was even some time before I could construe the estranged looks of those, who meant to intimate that they had renounced private friendship with me, upon mere public grounds. But enough! At present I feel more compunction for early compliances than later assertions of principle. And it is my decided advice to those who are beginning the world, not to be intimidated from openly espousing the cause which is a right one, by the apprehension of incurring any man's displeasure. But this must be done within the limits of candour, modesty, and real good temper. These being observed, we can have no enemies but those who are not worthy to be our friends.

#### DESCRIPTION OF OPORTO.

[From a late Publication.]

**O**PORTO is the second city in Portugal, in point of extent, population, and trade. It is seated about a league and a half from the sea, upon the declivity of a hill, on the north side of the river Douro. The houses rise gradually one above another, like the seats of a theatre. The majestic river which flows in the vale, covered with ships and boats, may be compared to a stage, on which thousands of actors are seen daily en-

gaged in the busy drama of trade. On the opposite side, we behold an immense mountain, which terminates the prospect, and presents this commercial theatre with a scene highly picturesque, consisting of gardens, villas, convents, wine-stores, &c. all in the most natural style of perspective and colouring.

Oporto, in common with most ancient cities, has the defects of being narrow, and so irregularly disposed, that



that there is scarcely a house in it with four right angles. The corner houses of the streets in general being obliquely disposed, render the adjoining houses of the same figure, as every one follows the crooked plan of his next neighbour.

Many of the streets are so steep, that a man may be said rather to climb than walk them. But this defect is compensated by their cleanliness, which they owe more to nature than police; for, as often as it rains, the floods of the adjoining mountains rush down in torrents, and sweep away all the impurities of the town. Lamps have not yet been introduced in the streets, except such as are placed before the images of the Virgin Mary.

The houses, when viewed at a moderate distance, have a clean agreeable appearance, owing to the colour of the materials, the lowness of the roofs, and their not being disfigured by a multiplicity of chimneys, those vehicles of dirt, which make so conspicuous an appearance in the buildings of northern climates. Here no apartment is furnished with a fireplace but the kitchen, and this is usually placed in the attic story.

The churches are large, strong, and magnificent, buildings, but totally devoid of every thing that constitutes scientific architecture: theirs is of a species between the Teutonic and Tuscan. The materials of which they are formed are excellent, and the masonry part not without merit. It is scarcely credible what riches are lavished on the inside of them; the altar-pieces, baldachins, &c. however defective in design, exhibit a profusion of gilding.

The general hospital, if completed, would be the largest building in Oporto. The principal front was intended to consist of an hexastyle portico in the Doric order, with a pavilion on each side. Although it is upwards of twenty years since the foundation of this structure was laid, there is yet but a wing of one of the pavilions covered in; the rest is raised but a few feet above the surface, and is likely to remain in this state, a magnificent modern ruin, and a lasting

monument of the folly of not proportioning the design to the public purse. The site is of all others, perhaps, the most ineligible for æconomy, on account of the inequality of the ground, a circumstance which obliged the architect to build walls, in the flanks, as massy as the famous wall which separates China from Tartary.

Towards the north-west part of the city, upon an eminence, is situated the barrack; it consists of three files of small but clean apartments, of about ten feet in height; opposite to it, is an extensive parade. The whole is encompassed by a wall, and is supposed to contain about five hundred infantry. On entering the gate, it is customary to salute the sentinel. Deserters are generally punished, not with stripes, but with servile labour; we met half a-dozen of these victims chained in pairs, carrying provision on their backs, which to a Portuguese is a mark of the greatest ignominy; for, according to their generous sentiments, that part of the human frame, which is never to be seen by the enemy, is not to be degraded by any servile oppression; hence, even the poorest peasant is always found to carry his load either in his hands or on his head.

On the south side of the town, near the verge of the river, is an extensive building called the Serra, perched upon the brow of a lofty precipice. Its form and situation convey the idea of a barrack; and indeed I almost concluded it was some military structure, upon seeing a number of flags displayed from the windows: on inquiry, however, I found it was a convent belonging to the order of friars called the Cruzes, who this day displayed their ensigns in honour of their patron saint. My guide pointed to one of the fathers, dressed in a black cloak and slouched hat; he was mounted on a mule, according to the rules of his community, which ordain, that they must not be seen outside of the boundaries of the convent on foot. Each friar, therefore, is equipped in that manner; so that they form, as it were, a sort of cavalry to the ecclesiastical corps, and are, in general,

neral, richer and more respected, or at least would be thought so, than the ecclesiastic infantry.

Among the commercial fabrics, the wine-stores claim the first rank, after the custom-house, in point of size. One of them, belonging to Mr. Warre, a British merchant, is an hundred and forty feet long by ninety broad. The inside is divided into three corridors, by two series of stone piers, extending from one end to the other. Between these piers, and next the walls, are placed the wine pipes, two in height. Several

coopers and labourers are daily employed in preparing the wine for exportation.

The females in Oporto have black sparkling eyes, and a countenance replete with simplicity. In stature they are rather low, but of a pleasing figure; their walk and deportment are easy and graceful. The men are well proportioned, rather low than tall, have a brown complexion, and reserved countenance. They are polite to strangers, and respectful to each other; even the poorest people are treated by their superiors with civility.

#### ANECDOTES OF ADMIRAL LORD BRIDPORT.

**S**IR Alexander Hood (now Lord Bridport) is brother to Lord Hood, and served as a captain in the fleet under him during the American war with great credit.—In the recent and glorious action of the 1st of June, 1794, having been previously made an admiral of the blue, his flag was hoisted on-board the Royal George. In the skirmishing of the 29th of May his ship was damaged; notwithstanding which he was in the hottest part of the action of the 1st of June, and lost his foremast and two top-masts, having had besides twenty men killed and seventy-two wounded. In the July following he was created Lord Bridport; and, on the anniversary of that glorious day, (viz. June 1, 1795,) he was made admiral of the white.

In consequence of Lord Howe's indisposition, Lord Bridport was pitched upon to command the grand fleet; and he accordingly sailed on the 11th of June last, with thirteen ships of the line, for the purpose of encountering a squadron from Brest supposed to be about the same force. His intention was to effect a junction with Vice-admiral Lord Cornwallis. This however he did not effect; but fell in with the French fleet soon after Lord Cornwallis had sustained a running fight, with great address and skill, against such a superior force.—A spirited action followed on the 23d of June, which ended in the capture

of three French ships of the line, the Alexander, Formidable, and Tigre.

His lordship's letter giving an account of this essential service, is manly and concise.—We shall conclude with his own words.—“In detailing the particulars of this service, I am to state, that at the dawn of day on the 22d instant, the *Nymphé* and *Astrea*, being the look-out frigates ahead, made the signal for the enemy's fleet. I soon perceived that there was no intention to meet me in battle; consequently I made the signal for four of the best-sailing ships, the *Sans Pareil*, *Orion*, *Russel*, and *Colossus*, and soon afterwards for the whole fleet, to chase, which continued all that day, and during the night, with very little wind. Early in the morning on the 23d inst. the headmost ships, the *Irresistible*, *Orion*, *Queen Charlotte*, *Russel*, *Colossus*, and *Sans Pareil*, were pretty well up with the enemy, and a little before six o'clock the action began, and continued till near nine o'clock. When the ships struck, the British squadron was near to some batteries, and in the face of a strong naval port, which will manifest to the public the zeal, intrepidity, and skill, of the admirals, captains, and all other officers, seamen, and soldiers, employed upon this service; and they are fully entitled to my warmest acknowledgments.”

SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## The THRIFTY WIFE.

SUNG BY MR. DIGNUM AT VAUXHALL.

I AM a cheerful fellow, although a married man,  
And in this age of folly pursue a saving plan.  
Though wives are thought expensive, yet who can live alone?  
Then, since they are *dear* creatures, 'tis best to have but one.  
My choice discovers early my prudence and my taste:—  
I've a very little wife with a very little waist.

Marriage is a draught we take for better or for worse,  
And wife is he who can prevent the draft upon his purse.  
But evils are much lessen'd when wives are well inclin'd;  
For, if they come across us, they shape them to our mind.  
When matters are well manag'd, no need to be strait-lac'd;  
You may with little danger increase the little waist.

Though spousy's so discreet, still each fashion she'll display:  
Her bosom (heaven bless her!) is as open as the day;  
Her garment (may I venture a simile to beg)  
Hangs loosely from her shoulder, like a gown upon a peg;  
Yet, fearful of expences, she shortens them, though small,  
And, if she goes on shortening, there'll be no waist at all!

## ON THE VICISSITUDES OF THE SEASONS.

WHERE, sweetly sad, and querulous, among  
The verdant boughs, the nightingale complains;  
Or integrates his loud nocturnal song  
To sighing zephyrs, and descending rains;—

I wander forth, the pensive child of grief,  
And catch the dew-drops as they tremble nigh;  
Hear the still cadence of the dropping leaf,  
And watch the moon that silvers o'er the sky;

Observe the radiant planets as they roll;  
Admire the constellations that arise,

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And fondly urge, upon my ravish'd soul,  
That man was born t' investigate the skies.

The obvious laws of Nature to unfold;  
To watch the varying seasons as they pass;  
To say, why landscapes glow at noon with gold;  
At night, why shadows darken o'er the grass;

Why Nature, that in spring so cheerful seems,  
In summer boasts such gaudiness of dyes;  
In autumn such vivacities of gleams;  
In winter such a gloominess of skies;

Are objects worthy of our highest care;  
A duty too impos'd on us by Heav'n;  
And teach us how to value what we are,  
By what to others has before been giv'n.

Spring is the type of youth, unripe and gay;  
But summer boasts a more confirm'd estate:  
Maturer autumn gently fades away;  
And winter's chilly blasts conclude our fate.

## THE FAIR THIEF.

TELL, and tell with truth and grief,  
That Chloe is an arrant thief:  
Before the urchin well could go,  
She stole the whiteness of the snow;  
And more, that whiteness to adorn,  
She stole the blushes of the morn;  
Stole all the sweetness *Æther* sheds  
On primrose banks or violet beds:  
Still to reveal her artful wiles,  
She stole the Graces' silken smiles:  
'Twas quickly seen she robb'd the sky,  
To plant a star in either eye;  
She stole Aurora's balmy breath;  
And pilfer'd orient pearl for teeth:  
The cherry, dipt in morning dew,  
Gave moisture to her lips and hue.

These were the infant sports; a store  
To which in time she pilfer'd more.  
At twelve, she stole from Cyprus' Queen,  
Her air, and love-commanding mien:  
Stole Juno's dignity; and stole  
From Pallas sense to charm the soul.  
She sung—The Syrens all appear'd;  
And, warbling, she stole all she heard;  
She play'd—The Muses from their hill  
Wonder'd who thus had stole their skill.  
Apollo's wit was next her prey;  
Her next—the beams that brighten day.

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Great Jove, her pilferings to crown,  
Pronounc'd these treasures all her own;  
Pardon'd her crimes, and prais'd her art;  
And t'other day she stole my heart.

Cupid, if lovers are your care;  
Exert your power on this fair:  
To trial bring her stolen charms;  
And let her prison be—my arms.

### WHEN MIGHTY MARS.

A SONG.

**W**HEN mighty Mars uplifts the spear,  
And fills the wond'ring world  
with fear;

Then, then my arm its worth shall show,  
And fearless meet the warlike foe.

Nor Marian, thou my heart's delight,  
Retard thy soldier from the fight;  
His love he'll prove when next we meet,  
And lay his laurels at thy feet.

Hark! hark the clarions sound afar,  
And call the godlike youth to war.  
Again we lead the daring charge,  
And hurl the shafts of death at large.  
Hark! hark! victory thousands cry,  
The glorious clamour rends the sky.

The white-rob'd virgin gentle peace,  
Commands the din of war to cease.

Now be propitious, gods above,  
And waft me to my absent love;  
Once more my Marian let me greet,  
And lay my laurels at her feet.

### THE THUNDER STORM.

**W**HEN God descends in vengeance  
on mankind,

Unfloods the deluge, and unchains the  
wind;

Bares his red arm, and, dreadful in his ire,  
Heaves the strong bolt, and throws the  
blasting fire;

O'er heaven's broad pavement bids the  
thunder roll,

And shakes with heavy peals the trem-  
bling pole;

Makes from their central base the hills to  
shake,

The woods to tremble, and the rocks to  
quake;

Or bids the furies of the ocean roar,  
Rise into mountains, and o'erwhelm the  
shore;

What mortal shall abide these dire alarms  
Of dread Omnipotence, severe in arms,  
With storms and famine in his awful train?  
Who shall abide, who shall his wrath re-  
strain?

### THE DOG BAULKED OF HIS DINNER. A TALE.

**T**HINK yourself sure of nothing till  
you've got it:

This is the lesson of the day.

In metaphoric language I might say,  
Count not your bird before you've shot it.  
Quoth proverb, " 'Twixt the cup and lip  
There's many a slip."

Not every guest invited sits at table,  
So says my fable.

A man once gave a dinner to his friend;  
His friend!—his patron I should rather  
think.

By all the loads of meat and drink,  
And fruits and jellies without end,  
Sent home the morning of the feast.

Jowler, his dog, a special beast,  
Soon as he smelt the matter out, away  
Scampers to old acquaintance Tray,  
And with expressions kind and hearty  
Invites him to the party.

Tray wanted little pressing to a dinner;  
He was, in truth, a gormandizing sinner.  
He lick'd his chops and wag'd his tail;  
Dear friend! (he cried,) I will not fail:

But what's your hour?

We dine at four;

But if you come an hour too soon,  
You'll find there's something to be done.  
His friend withdrawn, Tray, full of glee,  
As blithe as blithe could be,  
Skipt, danc'd, and play'd full many an  
antic,

Like one half frantic;  
Then sober in the sun lay winking,  
But could not sleep for thinking.  
He thought o'er every dainty dish,  
Fried, boil'd, and roast,

Flesh, fowl, and fish,

With tripe and toast,

Fit for a dog to eat;

And in his fancy made a treat,  
Might grace a bill of fare  
For my lord may'r.

At length, just on the stroke of three,  
Forth sallied he;

And through a well-known hole  
He slyly stole

Pop on the scene of action.

Here he beheld with wondrous satisfaction,  
All hands employ'd in drawing, stuffing,  
Skewering, spitting, and basting,  
The red-fac'd cook sweating and puffing,  
Chopping, mixing, and tasting.

Tray skulk'd about, now here, now there,  
And peep'd in this, and smelt at that,  
And lick'd the gravy and the fat,

And cried, O rare! how shall I fare!  
But Fortune, spiteful as old Nick,  
Resolv'd to play our dog a trick.

She made the cook just cast a look,  
Where Tray beneath the dresser lying  
His promis'd bliss was eyeing.

She dragg'd the culprit forth to view:

Then, to his terror and amazement,  
Whirl'd him like lightning through the  
casement.

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

HORSE GUARDS, *August 1.*

**D**ISPATCES from General the Hon. Sir John Vaughan, dated Martinico, the 22d and 23d of June, 1795, of which the following are extracts, have been received by the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

It is with infinite concern I acquaint you, that Brigadier-general Stewart was under the necessity of evacuating the island of St. Lucia on the 19th instant.

The natural strength of Morne Fortune had encouraged me to hope that I should be able to maintain that post until the arrival of a reinforcement; but by the capture of Pigeon Island, when least expected, and the subsequent loss of the *Viege* on the 17th inst. on which alone depended our uninterrupted communication with the Carenage, this evacuation was judged absolutely unavoidable. It accordingly took place on the evening of the 18th, and was happily effected undiscovered by the enemy.

We are indebted to the great assiduity and uncommon exertions of Captain Barnett, of his majesty's ship *Experiment*, that the garrison was brought off with the loss of only a few sick, who were unavoidably left behind.

I have the honour to forward you by this opportunity some letters and papers, which will give you a full account of the success that has so happily attended his majesty's arms in the island of Dominick.

The whole body of the enemy, amounting to 400, having consented to become prisoners of war, has relieved us from the anxiety we were under for the fate of that island.

*Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Edward Madden, to General the Hon. Sir John Vaughan, dated Prince Rupert's, Dominica, June 22, 1795.*

I have the pleasure to inform your excellency, that Capt. Bathe, having made a most judicious disposition of his detachment, so as nearly to surround the enemy in both their encampments, on the 17th instant the first encampment sent a flag, requesting liberty to lay down their arms, which Captain Bathe assented to. The conditions have not been as yet reported unto me.—Captain Bathe, on the 19th instant, sent a flag to the second encampment, offering the same terms that had been granted to the first, which they

immediately submitted to. I have now twenty-five officers prisoners here; two they call generals, and two hundred and forty-nine rank and file. I am informed that Captain Bathe, who is still in camp, has seventy nine more with him. There are a number of them dispersed in two's and three's in the woods, that the English negroes are in pursuit of, and hourly bringing some in. I am sending out small parties of militia, (who have behaved uncommonly well,) to the different parishes, in order to root them out entirely, and hope very soon to have to report to your excellency, that there is not a brigand in the island.

*Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Madden, to General the Hon. Sir John Vaughan, dated Prince Rupert's, June 27, 1795.*

I have the pleasure to inform your excellency, that the invasion of, and the rebellion in, this island is now entirely settled, every Frenchman that landed being either killed or prisoner, and the inhabitants of the rebellious parishes sent prisoners to Roseau, there to be disposed of by the governor.

The enemy made a third and fourth expedition against this part of the island, but, perceiving that we were prepared to give them a proper reception, they retired to Marie Galante, firing a gun, and throwing national colours.

HORSE GUARDS, *August 1, 1795.* By dispatches received from General the Hon. Sir John Vaughan, dated Martinico, the 28th of June, it appears, that in the island of St. Grenada the white French people, who had joined the brigands, were daily surrendering themselves at the British outposts; that in the windward part of the island most of the negroes had returned to their estates, and on some were making sugar; that a party of the brigands consisting of picked men, with their chief, Fedon, at their head, had been routed with considerable slaughter by a detachment of his majesty's troops under the command of Lieutenant Hinuber, of the 68th regiment. In this action Lieutenant Darling, of the 9th regiment, and 4 privates, were slightly wounded.

By a letter from Lieutenant-colonel Leighton to General Sir John Vaughan, dated St. Vincent's, the 23d of June, it appears, that on the 12th of that month the enemy's post on the *Viege* had been carried by assault, and that the commandant was wounded and taken. The ene-

my are said to have lost in this affair 250 men. The loss of the British consisted of

*Killed.*—Captain Piguet, of the 60th regiment, and 9 privates.

*Wounded.*—Captains Law and Forster, of the 16th regiment; Lieutenant Tonson, of the 60th, 1 serjeant, and 46 privates.

It is further stated, that very few of the French who had taken part with the Charibs were left throughout the island; and that Lieutenant-colonel Leighton, after this success, had advanced into the Charib country, and taken post on Mount Young.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *August 4.*  
*Extracts of Letters from Admiral Sir J. Laforey, Bart. Commander in chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands, to Mr. Nepean.*

St. Pierre, Martinique, *June 23.*

SINCE my letter of the 23d instant, his majesty's brig the Drake has arrived, whose commander parted from the West-India convoy in lat. 42. 52. N. and long. 11. 47. W in a very hard gale of wind, which he thinks must have greatly dispersed the whole.

Since the Drake left Barbadoes, I have received a letter from Governor Rickets, informing me of the arrival at that island of part thereof, and of the capture of some, a list of which I inclose. I am hastening forward two frigates, one of which I will send with all possible dispatch to windward of Deseda, and the other off Bartholomew's, where the enemy send most of their prizes, to recover as many of the captures as may be.

*List of Vessels captured.*

Blenheim, with troops.

Betsey, ditto.

Hanbury, with stores.

Aurora, merchantman.

Vintrefs, ditto.

Montferrat, packet.

About forty sail of the convoy have reached Barbadoes.

The Matilda frigate, stationed off Basseterre, Guadaloupe, returned yesterday. Her commander informed me that he had, on the 21st, fallen in with nine sail of ships going into port, three of which were large frigates, and chased him off. These must be the same that have been cruising to windward of Barbadoes, with the prizes they have taken.

The number of troops embarked at St. Lucia on-board his majesty's ship Experiment are stated by Sir John Vaughan at twelve hundred.

*Extract of a Letter from Vice-admiral Caldwell, late Commander in chief at Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands, to Mr. Nepean, dated at Spithead, July 29.*

Captain Otway, of his majesty's sloop Thorn, informs me that, on the 25th of May, he captured a French ship of war called the Courier National, of eighteen nine and six pounders, and 119 men. That on his coming up with her he immediately laid her on-board, and, after an action of 35 minutes, (during which two attempts were made to board the Thorn,) the enemy struck. The Thorn had only 5 men wounded, and the French ship 7 killed and 20 wounded.

Rear-admiral Thompson returned to Martinique on the 13th of June, after seeing the convoy in safety to 24 deg. 8 min. north, and on his way back captured the Perdrix, a French ship of war of 24 guns.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *August 1.*

Dispatches have been received from Sir J. B. Warren, Bart. K. B. dated la Pomone, at sea, July 24, 1795, stating, that the peninsula of Quiberon, with Fort Penhievre, which had been taken possession of by the French regiments in the pay of Great Britain on the 3d of that month, was surprized by the enemy on the night of the 21st. It appears, that, owing to the desertion and treacherous behaviour of some private soldiers belonging to some of the regiments above-mentioned, the enemy were enabled to get possession of the fort before any effectual disposition could be made.

A part of the troops, to the amount of 900, together with near 1500 of the royalist inhabitants, who had joined the regiments in the pay of Great Britain, effected their embarkation on-board the ships. The remainder fell into the hands of the enemy, together with such stores and ammunition as had been landed. A great proportion of the principal articles were, however, still on-board the transports. The squadron proceeded to the island of Houat and Hedic, where the troops were landed.

[The fatal issue of the expedition against France has been imputed to the incapacity of M. de Puisaye, and to M. d'Hervilly being wounded on the 16th. The fact is, a jealousy subsisted between these officers; the former of whom was appointed to command the Chouans, the latter emigrant regiments. It has never yet been found, though the contrary was unreasonably expected in the present instance, that

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an army not under one commander in chief ever effected any thing.

The first great error committed by the emigrants was their too hasty evacuation of Aurai, by which they deprived the inhabitants of the country of the means of joining them if they had been disposed to do so, and gave confidence to the republicans, with the means of waiting for reinforcements. Their suffering General Hoche, with numbers inferior to their own, to block them up in the peninsula of Quiberon, may be defended on the supposition that they were ignorant of the real state of his force, that they could not imagine a commander in chief would advance against them, leaving the main body of his army far behind, and that nothing was to be attempted which might hazard the depôt of their stores, a place in which they might wait for reinforcements, or, in case of necessity, cover their retreat. Whatever were their motives, they suffered Hoche, with a small body of republicans, hastily collected, to draw a line of posts across the isthmus; immediately after which he began a correspondence with the republicans in d'Hervilly's corps, by whom he was apprized of every thing he wished to know. The attempt to break through this line on the 16th, seems to have been the offspring of ignorance, jealousy, and conceit. Several officers remonstrated against it, especially M. de Sombreuil, who, having arrived the day before, pressed M. d'Hervilly to wait at least till the two regiments he had brought with him could be landed. D'Hervilly, animated with the old military spirit of his country, in his anxiety to prevent Sombreuil from sharing the glory of success, forgot all the precautions necessary to guard against defeat. Hoche was duly informed of the plan and hour of attack, and made a disposition by which none but a rash or inexperienced officer would have been deceived. On the ground behind which he meant his centre to make a stand, he planted two flanking batteries, and ordered his advanced posts to fall back toward these batteries, as if panic-struck. D'Hervilly fell into the snare, advanced within pistol-shot of the batteries, was wounded, repulsed with great loss, and, if the enemy had had but a few cavalry, would have been totally cut off. After this disaster, every man of any military skill among the royalists saw that their position was insecure; but they had no chief among them of sufficient influence to propose decisive measures. M. de Puisaye could not think of re-embarking, because that would have been to abandon the few Chouans who had joined them;

and they flattered themselves with the speedy arrival of succours from England. In the mean time, they never discovered that part of their troops, by means of pretended deserters, were in daily correspondence with the enemy. They even committed the defence of an important post to the very men who had given the most unequivocal proofs of holding in abhorrence both their leaders and their cause. The dreadful conclusion to which this led on the 20th is but too well known. After all, their speedy destruction was not entirely owing to their own mistakes. They had told ministers that they would land without opposition; that they had many friends in the country; and that those friends would join them in proportion as it was seen that they were supported. In none of these points did their promises fail. But they were left near a month without succour; and, if they had been able to maintain their ground, near a second month must have elapsed before any could have reached them. Compare this dilatoriness with the promptitude of General Hoche. As soon as he heard of the invasion, he flew to the spot with such troops as he found at hand, leaving orders for the main body of his army to be drawn together and follow him; drove the detached parties of the emigrants into the peninsula of Quiberon; drew a chain of entrenchments across the isthmus; cut off their communication with the country; opened a correspondence with their foldiers; and kept them blockaded till he found himself in condition to make a decisive attack.]

BARCELONA, *June 20.* On the 4th instant the enemy attacked the Spaniards towards Rivas, and on the 7th near Besalu, but were repulsed in both places with considerable loss. Though no correct statement has been received on the side of the Spaniards, it may be computed, according to the accounts, to amount to 36 officers and about 700 men killed and wounded. The most considerable loss, on the part of the French, was on the right, where the Spanish cavalry passed the river, and attacked the division of the enemy commanded by General Soret, encamped at Castillon, consisting of near 6000 men: they were thrown into confusion, and killed in great numbers, by the Spanish horse who made no prisoners: they left a number of their dead on the roads, but carried off the greater part of their wounded. All the spies and deserters agree in the report that the enemy lost about 2000 men.

GENOA,

GENOA, *June 30.* Intelligence has been received here, that, on the 24th instant, General de Vins had attacked and carried the different posts of the Madonna del Monte, from which the French, stationed on the heights behind Vado, had attempted in vain to dislodge him; that two battalions of Thourn, and a division of Croats of Carlstadt, commanded by General Cantu and Lieutenant-colonel Marquette, had attacked and driven the French from their strong entrenchments on the mountain of St. Giacomo; that two companies of the free corps of Julay had also carried the French entrenchments on the mountain of Settepani; that General de Vins having driven the enemy from all those posts, had established himself on the sea-coast between Savona and Vado; and that, on the night of the 28th, the French had fallen back upon Finale, leaving behind them thirty pieces of cannon, and two considerable magazines of provisions and forage.

It appears that General Colli, at the head of the Piedmontese army, has attacked the French on the side of Orme, and succeeded in driving them from several very important posts, particularly from that of Spinarda.

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-admiral Murray, Commander in chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels employed in North America, to Evan Nepean, Esq. Secretary to the Admiralty, dated Halifax, June 22.*

ON the 7th of January I sent the Oiseau and Argonaut to cruize, and, on the 11th, the Argonaut returned, bringing with her the French corvette l'Esperance, which she took on the 8th. As I found the Esperance completely fitted and in good repair, and being much in want of a vessel of the kind, on the 31st of January I sent her and the Lynx to cruize. These vessels took a privateer from Charlstown, named la Cocarde Nationale, mounting fourteen guns and six swivels, and carrying eighty men. They also retook the ship Norfolk, of Belfast, and brig George, of Workington. The former they sent to Providence, and the latter to Halifax.

The Squadron retook an American ship called the Ceres, laden with Dutch property, from Amsterdam to Surinam, which had been captured by a French privateer from Baltimore, and sent her to Halifax. ARGONAUT, *Lynn Haven Bay, Jan. 11.*

"Sir, On the eighth instant, Cape Henry bearing east south-east, about eighteen leagues, I captured a French republican ship of war called the l'Esperance, mounting twenty-two guns (six and four pound-

ders), and one hundred and thirty men, commanded by Monf. de St. Laurent, a lieutenant de vaisseau. She is a very complete vessel and sails well; had been out fifty-six days from Rochfort, and was bound to the Chesapeake.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Rear-adm. Murray. ALEX. JN. BALL.

#### ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *August 4.*

A Dispatch was yesterday received from Admiral Hotham, Commander in chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Mediterranean, dated Myrtillo Bay, June 30; inclosing the following Letter from Captain Towry, of his Majesty's Ship the Dido:

Dido, Port Mahon, *June 27, 1795.*

Sir, I this day dispatched the Fox cutter to communicate to you, that, in the execution of your instructions, with his majesty's ship Lowestoffe under my orders, being, at day-light of the 24th, in lat. 41 deg. 8 min. and long. 5 deg. 30 min. E. we discovered and chased two French frigates; after some manœuvring they stood towards us, and, at a quarter before nine A. M. the Dido, leading down, commenced a close action with the headmost of the enemy's ships, which, falling twice on-board, was at an early period much disabled from the loss of her bowsprit, fore-mast, and main top-mast; our mizen-mast being shot away, fore and main top-sails perfectly useless, we no longer kept to, at which time the Lowestoffe opened a well-directed fire; the enemy's second frigate then passing, and exchanging the opposite broadsides, his majesty's ships were kept on the same tack, till she went about, when, fearing she might stand to the assistance of the disabled ship, the Lowestoffe was sent in chase; the French frigate escaped by superior sailing, leaving her friend to be raked in a very judicious manner, on the return of the Lowestoffe, to whose fire she surrendered about noon. The Dido having cleared the wreck of the mizen-mast, and bent new top-sails, joined in securing the prize, la Minerve, a new ship, of 42 guns, 18-pounders, on the main deck, and 330 men, a remarkable fast sailer. Her companion we learnt to be l'Artemise, of 36 guns.

Having given a detail of the action, it becomes as much my duty as it is my inclination to acknowledge the very able support of his majesty's ship Lowestoffe, and testify, that by Captain Middleton's good conduct the business of the day was, in a great measure, brought to a fortunate issue. I must, at the same time, pay the just tribute of my warmest gratitude

to



to the officers and ship's company I have the honour to command; and it is with deep regret I add, that Lieutenant Buckol, (first of the Dido,) a most active officer, is among the wounded, I fear severely, though he never quitted the deck; Mr. Douglas, the boatwain, a deserving man, is killed.

Having also received information from the prisoners that the French fleet were actually at sea, the state of the ships obliged me to run for this port, where I propose fitting jury-masts in the prize, and proceeding to Ajaccio.

*Admiral Hotham.* C. H. TOWRY.

P. S. We cannot exactly estimate the loss in the French ship, but imagine it to be about 20. L'Artemile was also very much hulled.

Dido. Killed, Mr. Douglas, boatwain, and 3 seamen.

Wounded, Mr. Rd. Buckol, first lieutenant; Richard Willan, clerk; John Henley, quarter-master; James Gregory, boatwain's mate; and 11 seamen.

Lowestoffe. 3 seamen wounded.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, Aug. 7.

*Extract of a Letter from Admiral Hotham, Commander in chief of his Majesty's Ships in the Mediterranean, to Mr. Nepean, dated Britannia, at Sea, July 14, 1795.*

SIR,

YOU will be pleased to inform their lordships, that I dispatched on the 4th instant from St. Fiorenzo, the ships named in the margin, [Agamemnon, Meleager, Ariadne, Mofelle, Mutine cutter.] under the orders of Captain Nelson, whom I directed to call off Genoa, for the Inconstant and Southampton frigates that were lying there, and to take them with him, if, from the intelligence he might there obtain, he should find it necessary.

On the morning of the 7th I was much surprised to learn that the above squadron was seen in the offing, returning into port, pursued by the enemy's fleet, which, by General de Vins's letter, (the latest account I had received,) I had reason to suppose were certainly at Toulon.

Immediately on the enemy's appearance, I made every preparation to put to sea after them; and, notwithstanding the unpleasant predicament we were in, most of the ships being in the midst of watering and refitting, I was yet enabled, by the zeal and extraordinary exertions of the officers and men, to get the whole of the fleet under weigh that night, as soon as the land-wind permitted us to move; from which time we neither saw or heard any thing of the enemy till the 12th, when,

bearing eastward, and within sight of the Hieres Islands, two vessels were spoken with by Captain Hotham of the Cyclops and Captain Boys of la Fleche, who acquainted them they had seen the French fleet, not many hours before, to the southward of those islands. Upon which information I made the signal before night to prepare for battle, as an indication to our fleet that the enemy was near.

Yesterday, at day-break, we discovered them to leeward of us, on the larboard tack, consisting of twenty-three sail, seventeen of which proved to be of the line: the wind at this time blew very hard from the west-north-west, attended with a heavy swell, and six of our ships had to bend main top-sails, in the room of those that were split by the gale in the course of the night.

I caused the fleet, however, to be formed, with all possible expedition, on the larboard line of bearing, carrying all sail possible to preserve that order, and to keep the wind of the enemy, in the hopes of cutting them off from the land, from which we were only five leagues distant.

At eight o'clock, finding they had no other view but that of endeavouring to get from us, I made the signal for a general chase, and for the ships to take suitable stations for their mutual support, and to engage the enemy as arriving up with them in succession; but the baffling winds and vexatious calms, which render every naval operation in this country doubtful, soon afterwards took place, and allowed a few only of our van ships to get up with the enemy's rear about noon, which they attacked so warmly, that, in the course of an hour after, we had the satisfaction to find one of their sternmost ships, viz. l'Alcide, of seventy-four guns, had struck; the rest of their fleet, favoured by a shift of wind to the eastward, (that placed them now to windward of us,) had got so far into Frejus Bay, whilst the major part of our's was becalmed in the offing, that it became impossible for any thing further to be effected; and those of our ships which were engaged had approached so near to the shore that I judged it proper to call them off by signals.

If the result of the day was not so completely satisfactory as the commencement promised, it is my duty to state, that no exertions could be more unanimous than those of the fleet under my command; and it would be injustice to the general merit of all to select individual instances of commendation, had not superiority of sailing placed some of the ships in an advanced situation, of which they availed themselves in the most distinguished and honourable manner; and amongst the

number was the Victory, having Rear-admiral Man on-board, who had shifted his flag to that ship upon this occasion.

I am sorry to say that the Alcide, about half an hour after she had struck, by some accident caught fire in her fore-top, before she was taken possession of, and the flames spread with such rapidity, that the whole ship was soon in a blaze; several boats from the fleet were dispatched as quickly as possible to rescue as many of her people as they could save from the destruction that awaited them, and three hundred of them were in consequence preserved, when the ship blew up with the most awful and tremendous explosion, and between three and four hundred people are supposed to have perished.

Inclosed herewith is a list of the killed and wounded on-board the different ships engaged, by which their lordships will perceive our loss has not been great; and I have the pleasure to add, that the damages sustained by those ships have been such as can easily be remedied.

Had we fortunately fallen in with the enemy any distance from the land, I flatter myself we should have given a decisive blow to their naval force in these seas; and, although the advantage of yesterday may not appear to be of any great moment, I yet hope it will have served as a check upon their present operations, be they what they may. I am, &c.

W. HOTHAM.

*Return of the Officers and Men killed and wounded on-board the under-mentioned Ships of the Fleet under Admiral Hotham's command, in action with the French Fleet on the 13th of July, 1795.*

Victory—1 midshipman, 3 marines, killed; 11 seamen wounded.

Captain—1 seaman killed.

Culloden—2 seamen killed; First-lieutenant T. Whitter and 4 seamen wounded.

Blenheim—2 seamen killed, 2 ditto wounded.

Defence—1 seaman killed, 6 ditto wounded.

#### PEACE between FRANCE and SPAIN

Was signed on the 22d of July, 1795.

The following are the

##### PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

IV. The French republic restores to the King of Spain all the conquests which she has made from him in the course of the present war.

V. The fortified places, of which mention is made in the preceding article, shall be restored to Spain, with the cannons, warlike stores, and other articles belonging to those places, which shall have been

in them at the moment of the signing of this treaty.

IX. In exchange for the places restored by the 4th article, the King of Spain, for himself and his successors, gives up and abandons to the French republic all right of property in the Spanish part of St. Domingo, one of the Antilles: a month after the ratification of the present treaty shall be known in that island, the Spanish troops shall be in readiness to evacuate the places, ports, and establishments, which they at present occupy, in order to give them up to the troops of the French republic as soon as they shall arrive to take possession of them: the places, ports, and establishments, of which mention is made above, shall be delivered up to the French republic, with the cannons, warlike stores, and articles necessary for their defence, which shall be in them at the moment when the present treaty shall be known at St. Domingo: the inhabitants of the Spanish part of St. Domingo, who from inducements of interest or other motives shall prefer removing with their property into the dominions of his Catholic majesty, shall be able to do so, within the space of one year from the date of the treaty: the respective generals and commanders of the two nations shall concert the measures necessary to be taken for the execution of the present article.

X. There shall be respectively granted to the individuals of the two nations, restitution of the effects, revenues, and property, of all sorts, detained, seized, or confiscated, on account of the war which has subsisted between the French republic and his Catholic majesty; and likewise the most speedy justice with respect to the particular claims which those individuals may have in the states of the two contracting powers.

XI. In the mean time, till there shall be a new treaty of commerce between the contracting parties, all correspondencies and commercial relations shall be re-established between France and Spain, on the footing on which they stood before the present war.

XII. All the prisoners respectively made since the commencement of the war, without regard to the difference of number and rank, comprehending the seamen and marines captured on-board French or Spanish vessels, or those of other nations, as well as in general all those imprisoned on either side on account of the war, shall be delivered up within the space of two months at latest, after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, discharging, however, the private debts which the prisoners may have contracted.



## ORIGIN OF THE WHITE BOYS IN IRELAND.

SOON after the accession of George III. Ireland first began to be disturbed by a banditti who styled themselves White Boys; and, as these were generally of the Romish persuasion, the prejudices against that sect broke forth in the usual manner. A plot was alleged to have been formed against government; French and Spanish emissaries to have been sent over to Ireland, and actually to be employed to assist in carrying it into execution. The real cause of this commotion, however, was as follows:—About the year 1739 the murrain broke out among the horned cattle in the duchy of Holstein, from whence it soon after spread through the other parts of Germany. From Germany it reached Holland, from whence it was carried over to England, where it raged with great violence for a number of years. The mitigation of the penal laws against the Papists about this time encouraged the natives of the south of Ireland to turn their thoughts towards agriculture, and the poor began to enjoy the necessities of life in a comfortable manner. A foreign demand for beef and butter, however, having become uncommonly great, by reason of the cattle distemper just mentioned, ground appropriated to grazing became more valuable than that employed in tillage. The cotters were every where dispossessed of their little possessions, which the landlords let to monopolizers who could afford a higher rent. Whole baronies were now laid open to pasturage, while the former inhabitants were driven desperate by want of subsistence. Numbers of them fled to the large cities, or emigrated to foreign countries, while those who remained took small spots of land, about an acre each, at an exorbitant price, where they endeavoured if possible to procure the means of protracting a miserable existence for themselves and families. For some time these poor creatures were allowed by the more humane landlords the liberty of commonage;

but afterwards this was taken away, in despite of justice and a positive agreement; at the same time, the payment of tythes, and the low price of labour, not exceeding the wages in the days of Queen Elizabeth, aggravated the distresses of the unhappy sufferers beyond measure.

In such a situation, it is no wonder that illegal methods were pursued in expectation of redress. The people, covered with white skirts, assembled in parties at night, turned up the ground, destroyed bullocks, levelled the inclosures of the commons, and committed other acts of violence. These unavailing efforts were construed into a plot against the government; numbers of the rioters were apprehended in the counties of Limerick, Cork, and Tipperary, and some of them condemned and executed. In different places these unhappy wretches, instead of being looked upon as objects of compassion, were prosecuted with the utmost severity. Judge Aston, however, who was sent over to try them, executed his office with such humanity as did him the highest honour. A most extraordinary and affecting instance of this was, that on his return from Dublin, for above ten miles from Clonmell, both sides of the road were lined with men, women, and children; who, as he passed along, kneeled down and implored the blessing of heaven upon him as their guardian and protector.

In the mean time, the violences of the White Boys continued, notwithstanding that many examples were made. The idea of rebellion was still kept up; and, without the smallest foundation, gentlemen of the first rank were publicly charged with being concerned in it, inasmuch that some of them were obliged to enter bail, in order to protect themselves from injury. The Catholics of Waterford gave in a petition to Lord Hertford, the governor in 1765, in behalf of themselves and brethren, protesting their loyalty and obedience to government; but no effectual step was

taken either to remove or even to investigate the cause of the disturbances.

About two years after the appearance of the White Boys, a similar commotion arose in Ulster; which, however, proceeded in part from a different cause, and was of much shorter duration. By an act of parliament, the making and repairing of highways in Ireland was formerly a grievous oppression on the lower ranks of people. An housekeeper who had no horse was obliged to work at them six days in the year; and, if he had a horse, the labour of both was required for the same space of time. Besides this oppression, the poor complained that they were frequently obliged to work at roads made for the convenience of individuals, and which were of no service to the public. Nor were these the only grievances of which the insurgents at this time complained; the tythes exacted by the clergy were said to be unreasonable, and the rent of lands was more than they could bear. In 1763, therefore, being exasperated by a road proposed to be made thro' a part of the county of Armagh, the inhabitants most immediately affected by it rose in a body, and declared that they would make no more highways of the kind. As a mark of distinction, they wore oak-branches in their hats, from which circumstance they called themselves Oak-boys. The number of their partizans soon increased, and the insurrection became general through the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, Derry, and Fermanagh. In a few weeks, however, they were dispersed by parties of the military; and the public tranquillity was restored with the loss of only two or three lives. The road-act, which had been so justly found fault with, was repealed next session; and it was determined, that for the future the roads should be made and repaired by a tax to be equally assessed on the lands of the rich and poor.

Besides these, another set of insurgents called Steel-boys soon made their appearance, on the following account. The estate of an absentee

nobleman happening to be out of lease, he proposed, instead of an additional rent, to take fines from his tenants. Many of those, who at that time possessed his lands, were unable to comply with his terms; while others, who could afford to do so, insisted upon a greater rent from the immediate tenants than they were able to pay. The usual consequences of this kind of oppression instantly took place. Numbers being dispossessed and thrown destitute, were forced into acts of outrage similar to those already-mentioned. One of these charged with felony was carried to Belfast, in order to be committed to the county gaol; but his associates, provoked by the usage they had received, determined to relieve him. The design was eagerly entered into by great numbers all over the country; and several thousands, having provided themselves with offensive weapons, proceeded to Belfast in order to rescue the prisoners. To prevent this, he was removed to the barracks and put under the guard of a party of soldiers quartered there; but the Steel-boys pressed forward with a determination to accomplish their purpose by force, and some shots were actually exchanged between them and the soldiers. The consequences would undoubtedly have been fatal, had it not been for a physician of highly respectable character, who interposed at the risk of his life, and prevailed on those concerned to set the prisoner at liberty. The tumult, however, was not thus quelled. The number of insurgents daily increased, and the violences committed by them were much greater than those of the other two parties. Some were taken and tried at Carrickfergus, but none condemned. It was supposed that the fear of popular resentment had influenced the judges; for which reason an act was passed, enjoining the trial of such prisoners for the future to be held in counties different from those where the crimes were committed. This breach of a fundamental law of the constitution gave such offence, that, though several of the Steel-boys were afterwards taken up  
and



and carried to the castle of Dublin, no jury would find them guilty. This obnoxious law was therefore repealed; after which some of the insurgents, being tried in their respective counties, were condemned

and executed. Thus the commotions were extinguished: but, as no methods were taken to remove the cause, the continued distresses of the people drove many thousands of them into America in a very few years.

## AN ALLEGORICAL VISION.

**I**N a dream, I thought myself on a wide extended plain. At my left appeared a steep and rugged mountain, on the top of which stood a temple. The path on my right led into a valley, so beautiful and flourishing, that I conceived a strong desire to enter it. The distant sounds of various instruments, wafted to my ears by ambrosial gales, heightened the beauties of the place, and excited in my breast the most pleasing sensations. While I thus attentively listened to the sounds of melody, a female form issued from the valley, and directed her steps towards the place where I stood. As she approached me, I perceived she was most exquisitely beautiful. A robe of roseate hue, in careless negligence, covered her graceful form; the transparency of which displayed the symmetry of her limbs, and heightened the beauty of those charms it was intended to conceal. Her mien was bold and assuming; her unguarded eye spoke pleasure and delight; and her whole deportment was free and unrestrained. With an air of bewitching fondness, she threw her alabaster arms around me; and, with a magic voice, thus addressed me—

“Is happiness, fair youth, the treasure which thou seekest? then, fearless, follow wheresoever I lead. Attend my steps, and thou shalt undisturbed range through regions of ineffable delight. No care shall interrupt thy joys; no pain shall reach thy heart; but peace, content, and happiness, be ever thine.” Charmed by her accents, and by her matchless form subdued, I prepared to follow the beauteous phantom—when a voice, from some unseen object, arrested my steps; and, turning to learn from whence the sound proceeded, I

beheld a nymph arrayed in a snow-white vest, with an air of unaffected modesty, and majestic step, approaching from the mountain.

“Pause, frail mortal,” said the fair stranger, with severe and awful dignity, “and, ere to the allurements of Pleasure thou resignest thyself, hearken to the voice of Virtue. Wouldst thou attain the summit of thy wishes? wouldst thou really reach the blest abode of happiness? know, that the path by which thou must ascend is steep and rugged, and only to be maintained by pain, by toil, and by perseverance. The timorous and indolent, the base and pusillanimous, in vain attempt to gain the bright reward, which Virtue on the good, the generous, and the brave, alone bestows.”

“Hearest thou, sweet youth,” said the syren Pleasure, “what dangers, toils, and perils, thou must undergo, to reach the ideal pleasures of this austere dame! Heed not her precepts, but follow me. In my arms repose thy weary form, and lull thy cares to rest. The flowery paths through which I will conduct thy easy steps harbour no dangers, conceal no perils, to interrupt thy pleasing progress, nor dash with bitterness the current of thy joys. With me dwell bliss, delight, and everlasting pleasure.”

“Yet stay, mistaken youth,” indignant Virtue cried; “and hear my friendly admonitions. Within yon smiling valley, tempting to the view of inexperienced youth, dwell guilt, disease, and pain. There myriads of thy wayward race, won by the false blandishments of Pleasure, drink of the cup of wretchedness; and view, with fond lingering regret, this deep and rugged rock, which once, like thee, they shunned for fancied joys, and imaginary bliss.” Then,

waving

waving a rod which she held in her hand, the valley expanded to my view, and exhibited a group of wretched objects, composed of either sex, whose emaciated forms, and ghastly looks, portrayed the misery into which intemperance had plunged them.

Struck with horror at the sight, I turned to my guide; and, falling in her arms, implored her protection from the artifices of Pleasure. With transport the heavenly maid clasped me to her swelling breast; and, as I gazed on her face, new beauties rose to view; and that severity of aspect, which at first struck my soul with dread and awe, was now softened by a pleasing smile.

The veil of error, thus drawn from

my eyes by the hand of sage Experience, the syren Pleasure, the bewitching beauty, whose dazzling charms misled my understanding, appeared in her native form. The sparkling lustre of her eye was extinguished, the crimson of her cheek was faded, every charm was vanished, and all that appeared beautiful was now turned to foul deformity.

This sudden transformation impressed more forcibly on my mind the dangers I had escaped; and, turning to address my guardian genius, with the effort I awoke, and the vision vanished: but left an impression, which I will cherish, against the insinuations of vice, however specious the appearances under which they may court attention.

#### REMARKS ON GENERAL INVITATIONS.

**T**HE first and most common of all invitations, are general invitations: 'We shall be glad to see you, Mr. —, to take a dinner with us'—or—'When you pass this way, we shall be happy if you will step in, and eat a bit of mutton'—or—'Why do we never see you? We are always at home, and shall be happy if you will spend a day with us'—or—'Well! when am I to see you? Will you dine with me soon?'—or—'So! you never will come and dine with us'—or—'Before you go out of town, I positively insist, that you come and dine with us'—or—'I am engaged to-morrow, but, any other time, I shall be very happy if you will take pot-luck with us'—or—'Now do come and dine with us, just in the family-way,' &c. —With many other forms, which it were endless to mention. A man, who has but a dozen of such kind of friends, has no occasion to keep a table of his own above once a fortnight—and yet, sir, somehow or other, I have met with various disappointments in accepting such invitations.

It was but the other day I walked four miles from my house to dine with a friend, who 'was always at home,' and who had asked me so often, that I began to be ashamed of

my rudeness—but he had just dined, although I was at his house half an hour before the time which he told me he always kept. I concealed that I had not dined, and, making my bow precipitately, went to a neighbouring public house, and dined on a beef-steak.

Those who 'are always at home,' I have found are very seldom in the humour of seeing company, and of those who are most 'glad to see one,' the greater part are engaged abroad. Some are 'very happy to see me,' but it happens, very unfortunately, that the mistress of the house is gone a little way out of town, and taken the keys of the cellar with her, and the master is to take a family-dinner with a friend.

After a variety of rebuffs and disappointments, I am come to this opinion, that general invitations are words of course, and rarely mean any thing. If it be said, and I will allow it, that they are not always so, yet how are we to know when this is the case? My rule, therefore, is never to accept of them; for, if my company is really wanted, it will be asked more particularly; if not, and repeated experience convinces me of it, I account all such invitations to be only 'a civil way of speaking.'

Another



Another kind of invitation I am nearly equally averse to accept—that which depends on accident. You step to a friend's house on business, near his dinner hour: he thinks that politeness obliges him to ask you, nay, perhaps he thinks that you come to be asked. The safest rule, in these cases, is to refuse the invitation, unless, which cannot always happen, the inviter be one with whom we live in habits of the closest friendship and intimacy. Of such friends, few men can boast of a very large list.

It is confessedly a great meanness to put one's self in the way of a man, on purpose to be asked to dine; but it is, in my humble opinion, a greater meanness to ask a man who is not welcome. Distress may prompt the former, but for the latter I know no

excuse, unless a compliance with the hypocrisy of modern politeness be justifiable. Men of delicacy are the best of men, and cannot easily submit to be obliged by such a trifling favour as an invitation to dinner, and are consequently very much at a loss how to understand the common cant of invitations. He that complies with every verbal and general invitation, cannot fail to be often a very unwelcome guest; while he who accepts only that kind of invitation which cannot be misunderstood, a formal and written invitation, will rarely fail of being acceptable. Politeness, or what is called politeness, may induce a man to invite any one to dinner whom he may meet with, in hopes of a refusal; but the man who sends for his friend generally wants to see him.

#### PLEASING INSTANCES OF JUSTICE AND INTEGRITY.

**FIDELITY** and truth are the foundation of justice. As to be perfectly just is an attribute of the Divine Nature, to be so to the utmost of our ability is the glory of man.

The following examples of this virtue are extracted from various authors.

1. Among the several virtues of Aristides, that for which he was most renowned was justice; because this virtue is of most general use, its benefits extending to a greater number of persons, as it is the foundation, and in a manner the soul, of every public office and employment. Hence it was that Aristides, though in low circumstances, and of mean extraction, obtained the glorious surname of the Just; a title, says Plutarch, truly royal, or rather truly divine: but of which princes are seldom ambitious, because generally ignorant of its beauty and excellency. They choose rather to be called the conquerors of cities and the thunderbolts of war, preferring the vain honour of pompous titles, which convey no other idea than violence and slaughter, to the solid glory of those expressive of goodness and virtue. How much Aristides deserved the title given him, will appear in the fol-

lowing instances; though it ought to be observed, that he acquired it not by one or two particular actions, but by the whole tenor of his conduct.

Themistocles having conceived the design of supplanting the Lacedaemonians, and of taking the government of Greece out of their hands, in order to put it into those of the Athenians, kept his eye and his thoughts continually fixed upon that great project; and, as he was not very nice or scrupulous in the choice of his measures, whatever tended towards the accomplishing of the end he had in view he looked upon as just and lawful.

On a certain day then he declared, in a full assembly of the people, that he had a very important design to propose; but that he could not communicate it to the people, because its success required it should be carried on with the greatest secrecy: he therefore desired they would appoint a person to whom he might explain himself upon the matter in question. Aristides was unanimously fixed upon by the whole assembly, who referred themselves entirely to his opinion of the affair; so great a confidence had they both in his probity and prudence. Themistocles, therefore, having taken him aside, told him that the design he

he had conceived was to burn the fleet belonging to the rest of the Grecian states, which then lay in a neighbouring port; and by this means Athens would certainly become the undisputed mistress of all Greece. Aristides hereupon returned to the assembly, and only declared to them that indeed nothing could be more advantageous to the commonwealth than Themistocles's project, but that at the same time nothing in the world could be more unjust. All the people unanimously ordained that Themistocles should entirely desist from his project.

There is not perhaps in all history a fact more worthy of admiration than this. It is not a company of philosophers (to whom it costs nothing to establish fine maxims and sublime notions of morality in the school) who determine on this occasion that the consideration of profit and advantage ought never to prevail in preference to what is honest and just; but the whole people who are highly interested in the proposal made to them, who are convinced it is of the greatest importance to the welfare of the state, and who, however, reject with unanimous consent, and without a moment's hesitation; and for this only reason, that it is contrary to justice. How black and perfidious, on the other hand, was the design which Themistocles proposed to them, of burning the fleet of their Grecian confederates at a time of entire peace, solely to aggrandize the power of the Athenians! Had he an hundred times the merit ascribed to him, this single action would be sufficient to fully all his glory; for it is the heart, that is to say, integrity and probity, which constitutes and distinguishes true merit.

2. The government of Greece having passed from Sparta to the Athenians, it was thought proper under this new government to lodge in the island of Delos the common treasure of Greece; to fix new regulations with regard to the public money; and to lay such a tax as might be regulated according to the revenue of each city and state, in order that, the expences being equally borne by the several individuals who composed

the body of the allies, no one might have reason to murmur. The difficulty was to find a person of so honest and incorrupt a mind, as to discharge faithfully an employment of so delicate and dangerous a kind, the due administration of which so nearly concerned the public welfare. All the allies cast their eyes on Aristides; accordingly they invested him with full powers, and appointed him to levy a tax on each of them, relying entirely on his wisdom and justice. The citizens had no cause to repent their choice. He presided over the treasury with the fidelity and disinterestedness of a man who looks upon it as a capital crime to embezzle the smallest portion of another's possessions, with the care and activity of a father of a family in the management of his own estate, and with the caution and integrity of a person who considers the public moneys as sacred. In fine, he succeeded in what is equally difficult and extraordinary, viz. to acquire the love of all in an office in which he who escapes the public odium gains a great point. Such is the glorious character which Seneca gives of a person charged with an employment of almost the same kind, and the noblest eulogium that can be given to such an administrator of public revenues. It is the exact picture of Aristides. He discovered so much probity and wisdom in the exercise of this office, that no man complained; and those times were considered ever after as the golden age; that is, the period in which Greece had attained its highest pitch of virtue and happiness.

While he was treasurer-general of the republic, he made it appear that his predecessors in that office had cheated the state of vast sums of money, and among the rest Themistocles in particular; for this great man, with all his merit, was not irreproachable on that head; for which reason, when Aristides came to pass his account, Themistocles raised a mighty faction against him, accused him of having embezzled the public treasure, and prevailed so far as to have him condemned and fined. But the principal inhabitants, and the most virtuous part of the citizens,

rising



rising up against so unjust a sentence, not only the judgment was reversed and the fine remitted, but he was elected treasurer again for the year ensuing. He then seemed to repent of his former administration; and, by shewing himself more tractable and indulgent towards others, he found out the secret of pleasing all that plundered the commonwealth: for, as he neither reprov'd them nor narrowly inspect'd their accounts, all these plunderers, grown fat with spoil and rapine, now extolled Aristides to the skies. It would have been easy for him, as we perceive, to have enriched himself in a post of that nature, which seems, as it were, to invite a man to it by the many favourable opportunities it lays in his way; especially as he had to do with officers, who for their part were intent upon nothing but robbing the public, and would have been ready to conceal the frauds of the treasurer their master upon condition he did them the same favour. These very officers now made interest with the people to have him continued a third year in the same employment: but when the time of election was come, just as they were on the point of electing Aristides unanimously, he rose up, and warmly reprov'd the Athenian people: "What (says he,) when I managed your treasure with all the fidelity and diligence an honest man is capable of, I met with the most cruel treatment, and the most mortifying returns; and now, that I have abandoned it to the mercy of these robbers of the republic, I am an admirable man and the best of citizens! I cannot help declaring to you, that I am more ashamed of the honour you do me this day, than I was of the condemnation you pass'd against me this time twelvemonth; and with grief I find that it is more glorious with us to be complaisant to knaves than to save the treasures of the republic." By this declaration he silenced the public plunderers and gained the esteem of all good men.

3. In the Universal History we meet with the following remarkable instance of a scrupulous regard to justice in a Persian king named Nouf-

chirvan. Having been out a-hunting, and desirous of eating some of the venison in the field, several of his attendants went to a neighbouring village and took a quantity of salt to season it. The king, suspecting how they had acted, ordered that they should immediately go and pay for it. Then, turning to his attendants, he said, "This is a small matter in itself, but a great one as it regards me: for a king ought ever to be just, because he is an example to his subjects; and, if he swerves in trifles, they will become dissolute. If I cannot make all my people just in the smallest things, I can at least shew them it is possible to be so."

These examples, to which many more might be added, are highly pleasing to a sagacious and virtuous mind; but the sensual and brutal part of mankind, who regard only the present moment, who see no objects but those which fall under the cognizance of the corporeal eye, and estimate the merit of every action by the gain which it produces, have always considered justice and utility as independent of each other. They put utility in balance against honesty every day; and never fail to incline the beam in favour of the former, if the supposed advantage is thought to be considerable. They have no regard to justice but as they reckon to gain by it, or at least not to lose; and are always ready to desert it when it exposes them to any danger or threatens them with any loss. From this disposition of mind proceeds that avidity of wealth and that habitual fraud which perpetually embroil civil society: from this fatal source arises that deluge of iniquity which has overflowed the world; from this preference of interest to honesty proceed every unjust litigation and every act of violence. And yet nothing is more certain than that "Whatever is unjust must, upon the whole, be disadvantageous;" which might be proved thus:

Nothing is advantageous or useful but that which has a tendency to render us happy: the highest advantage, or absolute utility, is complete happiness; and this happiness, whatever

ever is unjust is so far from tending to promote, that it destroys our happiness; for whatever is unjust is contrary to the Divine will: but it is not possible that we should become happy by resisting that will; because of this will our happiness is the immediate object. We should always remember that there is another world in which the fates of mankind will be impartially decided.

But, to prevent the dreadful confusion which the mistaken notion of interest had introduced among mankind, it became necessary to have recourse to the innate principles of justice; to suspend the balance and display the sword, for the determination of differences and the punishment of guilt. This is the reason and origin of distributive justice, which became the necessary appendage of sovereignty. Accordingly, in ancient times, princes administered justice in person and without delay; but at length being embarrassed and oppressed by the multiplicity of business which increased with their dominions, or diverted from their attention to civil government by the command of armies, certain laws were established with great solemnity to adjust and determine the differences which might arise among the members of the same community, and to repress the insolence of those who dared to violate the public peace, by possessing them with the dread either of corporeal punishment or infamy. The execution of these laws was put into the hands of subordinate judges. These delegates of the sovereign power were called magistrates; and these are the persons by whom justice is at this time administered, except in particular cases, in which the sovereign himself interferes. But, by whomsoever this kind of justice is administered, it ought to be done speedily, impartially, and without expence to the parties.

4. Aristides being judge between two private persons, one of them declared, that his adversary had greatly injured Aristides. "Relate rather, good friend, (said he, interrupting him,) what wrong he hath done thee; for it is thy cause, not mine, that I now sit judge of."

Again: Being desired by Simonides, a poet of Chios, who had a cause to try before him, to stretch a point in his favour, he replied, "As you would not be a good poet if your lines ran contrary to the just measures and rules of your art; so I should neither be a good judge nor an honest man if I decided aught in opposition to law and justice."

5. Artabazanes, an officer of Artaxerxes king of Persia, begged his majesty to confer a favour upon him, which if complied with would be an act of injustice. The king, being informed that the promise of a considerable sum of money was the only motive that induced the officer to make so unreasonable a request, ordered his treasurer to give him thirty thousand dariuses, being a present of equal value with that which he was to have received. Giving him the order for the money, "Here, take (says the king) this token of my friendship for you: a gift of this nature cannot make me poor; but complying with your request would make me poor indeed, for it would make me unjust."

6. Cambyfes king of Persia was remarkable for the severity of his government and his inexorable regard to justice. This prince had a particular favourite whom he made a judge; and this judge reckoned himself so secure in the credit he had with his master, that without any more ado causes were bought and sold in the courts of judicature as openly as provisions in the market. But, when Cambyfes was informed of these proceedings, enraged to find his friendship so ungratefully abused, the honour of his government prostituted, and the liberty and property of his subjects sacrificed to the avarice of his wretched minion, he ordered him to be seized and publicly degraded; after which he commanded his skin to be stripped over his ears, and the seat of judgment to be covered with it as a warning to others. At the same time, to convince the world that this severity proceeded only from the love of justice, he permitted the son to succeed his father in the honours and office of prime minister.

HISTORY



## HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 173.

THE enquiry which next presents itself to our view, is, From what part of the Old World America has most probably been peopled?

Discoveries long ago made inform us, that an intercourse between the Old Continent and America might be carried on with facility from the north-west extremities of Europe and the north-east boundaries of Asia. In the 9th century the Norwegians discovered Greenland, and planted a colony there. The communication with that country was renewed in the last century by Moravian missionaries, in order to propagate their doctrine in that bleak and uncultivated region. By them we are informed that the north-west coast of Greenland is separated from America by a very narrow strait; that at the bottom of the bay it is highly probable that they are united; that the Esquimaux of America perfectly resemble the Greenlanders in their aspect, dress, and mode of living; and that a Moravian missionary, well acquainted with the language of Greenland, having visited the country of the Esquimaux, found, to his astonishment, that they spoke the same language with the Greenlanders, and were in every respect the same people. The same species of animals, too, are found in the contiguous regions. The bear, the wolf, the fox, the hare, the deer, the roebuck, the elk, frequent the forests of North America, as well as those in the north of Europe.

Other discoveries have proved, that if the two continents of Asia and America be separated at all, it is only by a narrow strait. From this part of the Old Continent, also, inhabitants may have passed into the New; and the resemblance between the Indians of America and the eastern inhabitants of Asia, would induce us to conjecture that they have a common origin. This is the opinion adopted by Dr. Robertson in his History of America, where we find it accompanied with the following narrative.

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“ While those immense regions which stretched eastward from the river Oby to the sea of Kamtschatka were unknown, or imperfectly explored, the north-east extremities of our hemisphere were supposed to be so far distant from any part of the New World, that it was not easy to conceive how any communication should have been carried on between them. But the Russians, having subjected the western part of Siberia to their empire, gradually extended their knowledge of that vast country, by advancing towards the east into unknown provinces. These were discovered by hunters in their excursions after game, or by soldiers employed in levying the taxes; and the court of Moscow estimated the importance of those countries only by the small addition which they made to its revenue. At length, Peter the Great ascended the Russian throne: his enlightened comprehensive mind, intent upon every circumstance that could aggrandize his empire, or render his reign illustrious, discerned consequences of those discoveries, which had escaped the observation of his ignorant predecessors. He perceived, that, in proportion as the regions of Asia extended towards the east, they must approach nearer to America; that the communication between the two continents, which had long been searched for in vain, would probably be found in this quarter; and that, by opening this intercourse, some part of the wealth and commerce of the western world might be made to flow into his dominions by a new channel. Such an object suited a genius that delighted in grand schemes. Peter drew up instructions with his own hand for prosecuting this design, and gave orders for carrying it into execution.

His successors adopted his ideas, and pursued his plan. The officers whom the Russian court employed in this service, had to struggle with so many difficulties, that their progress

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was extremely slow. Encouraged by some faint traditions among the people of Siberia concerning a successful voyage in the year 1648 round the north-east promontory of Asia, they attempted to follow the same course. Vessels were fitted out, with this view, at different times, from the rivers Lena and Kolyma; but in a frozen ocean, which nature seems not to have destined for navigation, they were exposed to many disasters, without being able to accomplish their purpose. No vessel fitted out by the Russian court ever doubled this formidable cape; we are indebted for what is known of those extreme regions of Asia, to the discoveries made in excursions by land. In all those provinces, an opinion prevails, that countries of great extent and fertility lie at no considerable distance from their own coasts. These the Russians imagined to be part of America; and several circumstances concurred not only in confirming them in this belief, but in persuading them that some portion of that continent could not be very remote. Trees of various kinds, unknown in those naked regions of Asia, are driven upon the coast by an easterly wind. By the same wind floating ice is brought thither in a few days; flights of birds arrive annually from the same quarter; and a tradition obtains among the inhabitants, of an intercourse formerly carried on with some countries situated to the east.

After weighing all these particulars, and comparing the position of the countries in Asia which they had discovered, with such parts in the north-west of America as were already-known; the Russian court formed a plan, which would have hardly occurred to any nation less accustomed to engage in arduous undertakings and to contend with great difficulties. Orders were issued to build two vessels at Ochotz, in the sea of Kamtschatka, to sail on a voyage of discovery. Though that dreary uncultivated region furnished nothing that could be of use in constructing them but some larch-trees; though not only the iron, the cordage, the sails, and all the numerous arti-

cles requisite for their equipment, but the provisions for victualling them, were to be carried through the immense deserts of Siberia, along rivers of difficult navigation, and roads almost impassable, the mandate of the sovereign, and the perseverance of the people, at last surmounted every obstacle. Two vessels were finished; and, under the command of the captains Behring and Tschirikow, sailed from Kamtschatka in quest of the New World, in a quarter where it had never been approached. They shaped their course towards the east; and though a storm soon separated the vessels, which never rejoined, and many disasters befel them, the expectations from the voyage were not altogether frustrated. Each of the commanders discovered land, which to them appeared to be part of the American continent; and, according to their observations, it seems to be situated within a few degrees of the north-west coast of California. Each sent some of his people ashore; but in one place the inhabitants fled as the Russians approached; in another, they carried off those who landed, and destroyed their boats. The violence of the weather, and the distress of their crews, obliged both to quit this inhospitable coast. In their return they touched at several islands, which stretch in a chain from east to west between the country which they had discovered and the coast of Asia. They had some intercourse with the natives, who seemed to them to resemble the North Americans. They presented to the Russians the calumet, or pipe of peace, which is a symbol of friendship universal among the people of North America, and an usage of arbitrary institution peculiar to them."

The more recent and accurate discoveries of the illustrious navigator Captain Cook, and his successor Captain Clerke, have brought the matter still nearer to certainty. The sea, from the south of Behring's Straits to the crescent of isles between Asia and America, is very shallow. It deepens from these straits (as the British seas do from those of Dover) till soundings are lost in the Pacific Ocean;



Ocean; but that does not take place but to the south of the isles. Between them and the straits is an increase from twelve to fifty-four fathom, except only off St. Thaddeus Nofs, where there is a channel of greater depth. From the volcanic disposition, it has been judged probable, not only that there was a separation of the continents at the Straits of Behring, but that the whole space from the isles to that small opening had once been occupied by land; and that the fury of the watery element, actuated by that of fire, had, in most remote times, subverted and overwhelmed the tract, and left the islands monumental fragments.

Without adopting all the fancies of Buffon, there can be no doubt, as the Abbé Clavigero observes, that our planet has been subject to great vicissitudes since the deluge. Ancient and modern histories confirm the truth which Ovid has sung in the name of Pythagoras:

*Video ego quod fuerat quondam solidissima  
tellus,*

*Esse fretum; vidi sacras ex aquore terras.*

At present they plough those lands over which ships formerly sailed, and now they sail over lands which were formerly cultivated; earthquakes have swallowed some lands, and subterraneous fires have thrown up others: the rivers have formed new soil with their mud; the sea retreating from the shores has lengthened the land in some places, and advancing in others has diminished it; it has separated some territories which were formerly united, and formed new straits and gulphs. We have examples of all these revolutions in the past century. Sicily was united to the continent of Naples, as Eubea, now the Black Sea, to Bœotia. Diodorus, Strabo, and other ancient authors, say the same thing of Spain and Africa, and affirm, that, by a violent eruption of the ocean upon the land between the mountains Abyla and Calpe, that communication was broken, and the Mediterranean Sea was formed. Among the people of Ceylon there is a tradition that a similar irruption of the sea separated their

island from the peninsula of India. The same thing is believed by those of Malabar with respect to the isles of Maldivia, and with the Malaysians with respect to Sumatra. It is certain, says the Count de Buffon, that in Ceylon the earth has lost thirty or forty leagues, which the sea has taken from it; on the contrary, Tongres, a place of the Low Countries, has gained thirty leagues of land from the sea. The northern part of Egypt owes its existence to inundations of the Nile. The earth which this river has brought from the inland countries of Africa, and deposited in its inundations, has formed a soil of more than twenty-five cubits of depth. In like manner, adds the above author, the province of the Yellow River in China, and that of Louisiana, have only been formed of the mud of rivers. Pliny, Seneca, Diodorus, and Strabo, report innumerable examples of similar revolutions. In South America, all those who have observed with philosophic eyes the peninsula of Yucatan, do not doubt that that country has once been the bed of the sea; and, on the contrary, in the channel of Bahama many indications shew the island of Cuba to have been once united to the continent of Florida. In the strait which separates America from Asia many islands are found, which probably were the mountains belonging to that tract of land which we suppose to have been swallowed up by earthquakes; which is made more probable by the multitude of volcanoes which we know of in the peninsula of Kamtschatka. It is imagined, however, that the sinking of that land, and the separation of the two continents, has been occasioned by those great and extraordinary earthquakes mentioned in the histories of the Americans, which formed an era almost as memorable as that of the deluge. The histories of the Toltecas fix such earthquakes in the year I Tecpatl; but, as we know not to what century that belonged, we can form no conjecture of the time that great calamity happened. If a great earthquake should overwhelm the isthmus of Suez, and there should be at the same

tine as great a scarcity of historians as there were in the first ages after the deluge, it would be doubted, in three hundred or four hundred years after, whether Asia had ever been united by that part to Africa; and many would firmly deny it.

Whether that great event, the separation of the continents, took place before or after the population of America, is as impossible as it is of little moment for us to know; but we are indebted to the above-mentioned navigators for settling the long dispute about the point from which it was effected. Their observations prove, that in one place the distance between continent and continent is only thirty-nine miles, not (as the author of the *Recherches Philosophiques sur les Américains* would have it) eight hundred leagues. This narrow strait has also in the middle two islands, which would greatly facilitate the migration of the Asiatics into the New World, supposing that it took place in canoes after the convulsion which rent the two continents asunder. Besides, it may be added, that these straits are, even in the summer, often filled with ice; in winter, often frozen. In either case mankind might find an easy passage; in the last, the way was extremely ready for quadrupeds to cross and stock the continent of America. But where, from the vast expanse of the north-eastern world, to fix on the first tribes who contributed to people the New Continent, now inhabited almost from end to end, is a matter that baffles human reason. The learned may make bold and ingenious conjectures, but plain good sense cannot always accede to them.

As mankind increased in numbers, they naturally protruded one another forward. Wars might be another cause of migrations. There appears no reason why the Asiatic north might not be an *officina virorum*, as well as the European. The overteeming country, to the east of the Riphæan mountains, must find it necessary to discharge its inhabitants: the first great wave of people was forced forward by the next to it, more tumid and more powerful than itself; suc-

cessive and new impulses continually arriving, short rest was given to that which spread over a more eastern tract; disturbed again and again, it covered fresh regions; at length, reaching the farthest limits of the Old World, found a new one, with ample space to occupy unmolested for ages; till Columbus cursed them by a discovery, which brought again new sins and new deaths to both worlds.

"The inhabitants of the New World (Mr. Pennant observes) do not consist of the offspring of a single nation; different people, at several periods, arrived there; and it is impossible to say, that any one is now to be found on the original spot of its colonization. It is impossible, with the lights which we have so recently received, to admit that America could receive its inhabitants (at least the bulk of them) from any other place than eastern Asia. A few proofs may be added, taken from customs or dresses common to the inhabitants of both worlds: some have been long extinct in the Old, others remain in both in full force.

The custom of scalping was a barbarism in use with the Scythians, who carried about them at all times this savage mark of triumph: they cut a circle round the neck, and stripped off the skin, as they would that of an ox. A little image found among the Calmucs, of a Tartarian deity, mounted on a horse, and sitting on a human skin, with scalps pendent from the breast, fully illustrates the custom of the Scythian progenitors, as described by the Greek historian. This usage, as the Europeans know by horrid experience, is continued to this day in America. The ferocity of the Scythians to their prisoners extended to the remotest part of Asia. The Kamtschatkans, even at the time of their discovery by the Russians, put their prisoners to death by the most lingering and excruciating inventions; a practice in full force to this very day among the aboriginal Americans. A race of the Scythians were styled *Anthropophagi*, from their feeding on human flesh. The people of Nootka Sound still make a repast on their fellow-creatures: but what is more wonderful,



wonderful, the savage allies of the British army have been known to throw the mangled limbs of the French prisoners into the horrible cauldron, and devour them with the same relish as those of a quadruped.

The Scythians were said, for a certain time, annually to transform themselves into wolves, and again to resume the human shape. The newly-discovered Americans about Nootka Sound at this time disguise themselves in dresses made of the skins of wolves and other wild beasts, and wear even the heads fitted to their own. These habits they use in the chase, to circumvent the animals of the field. But would not ignorance or superstition ascribe to a supernatural metamorphosis these temporary expedients to deceive the brute creation?

In their marches, the Kamtschatkans never went abreast, but followed one another in the same tract. The same custom is exactly observed by the Americans.

The Tungusi, the most numerous nation resident in Siberia, prick their faces with small punctures, with a needle, in various shapes; then rub into them charcoal, so that the marks become indelible. This custom is still observed in several parts of America. The Indians on the back of Hudson's Bay, to this day, perform the operation exactly in the same manner, and puncture the skin into various figures; as the natives of New Zealand do at present, and as the ancient Britons did with the herb glastum, or woad; and the Virginians, on the first discovery of that country by the English.

The Tungusi use canoes made of birch-bark, distended over ribs of wood, and nicely sewed together. The Canadian, and many other American nations, use no other sort of boats. The paddles of the Tungusi are broad at each end; those of the people near Cook's River, and of Oonalascha, are of the same form.

In burying of the dead, many of the American nations place the corpse at full length, after preparing it according to their customs; others place it in a sitting posture, and lay

by it the most valuable clothing, wampum, and other matters. The Tartars did the same: and both people agree in covering the whole with earth, so as to form a tumulus, barrow, or carnedd.

Some of the American nations hang their dead in trees. Certain of the Tungusi observe a similar custom.

We can draw some analogy from dress: conveniency in that article must have been consulted on both continents, and originally the materials must have been the same, the skins of birds and beasts. It is singular that the conic bonnet of the Chinese should be found among the people of Nootka. I cannot give into the notion, that the Chinese contributed to the population of the New World; but we can readily admit, that a shipwreck might furnish those Americans with a pattern for that part of the dress.

In respect to the features and form of the human body, almost every tribe found along the western coast has some similitude to the Tartar nations, and still retain the little eyes, small noses, high cheeks, and broad faces. They vary in size, from the lusty Calmucs to the little Nogaïans. The internal Americans, such as the Five Indian Nations, who are tall of body, robust in make, and of oblong faces, are derived from a variety among the Tartars themselves. The fine race of Tschutski seem to be the stock from which those Americans are derived. The Tschutski, again, from that fine race of Tartars the Kabardinski, or inhabitants of Kabarda.

But about Prince William's Sound begins a race chiefly distinguished by their dress, their canoes, and their instruments of the chase, from the tribes to the south of them. Here commences the Esquimaux people, or the race known by that name in the high latitudes of the eastern side of the continent. They may be divided into two varieties. At this place they are of the largest size. As they advance northward they decrease in height, till they dwindle into the dwarfish tribes which occupy some of the coasts of the icy Sea, and the maritime

maritime parts of Hudson's Bay, of Greenland, and Terra de Labrador. The famous Japanese map places some islands seemingly within the Straits of Behring, on which is bestowed the title of Ya Zue, or the Kingdom of the Dwarfs. Does not this in some manner authenticate the chart, and give us reason to suppose that America was not unknown to the Japanese; and that they had (as is mentioned by Kæmpfer and Charlevoix) made voyages of discovery, and, according to the last, actually wintered on the continent? That they might have met with the Esquimaux is very probable; whom, in comparison of themselves, they might justly distinguish by the name of dwarfs. The reason of their low stature is very obvious: these dwell in a most severe climate, amidst penury of food; the former in one much more favourable, abundant in provisions; circumstances that tend to prevent the degeneracy of the human frame. At the island of Oonalascha, a dialect of the Esquimaux is in use, which was continued along the whole coast from thence northward."

The continent which stocked America with the human race poured in the brute creation through the same passage. Very few quadrupeds continued in the peninsula of Kamtschatka; Mr. Pennant enumerates only twenty-five which are inhabitants of land: all the rest persisted in their migration, and fixed their residence in the New World. Seventeen of the Kamtschatkan quadrupeds are found in America: others are common only to Siberia or Tartary, having, for unknown causes, entirely evacuated Kamtschatka, and divided themselves between America and the parts of Asia above cited. Multitudes again have deserted the Old World even to an individual, and fixed their seats at distances most remote from the spot from which they took their departure; from mount Ararat, the resting-place of the ark, in a central part of the Old World, and excellently adapted for the dispersion of the animal creation to all its parts. We need not be startled (says Mr. Pennant) at the vast journeys many

of the quadrupeds took to arrive at their present seats. Might not numbers of species have found a convenient abode in the vast Alps of Asia, instead of wandering to the Cordilleras of Chili? or might not others have been contented with the boundless plains of Tartary, instead of travelling thousands of miles to the extensive flats of Pampas?—To endeavour to elucidate common difficulties is certainly a trouble worthy of the philosopher and of the divine; not to attempt it would be a criminal indolence, a neglect to

Vindicate the ways of God to man.

But there are multitudes of points beyond the human ability to explain, and yet are truths undeniable: the facts are indisputable, notwithstanding the causes are concealed. In such cases, faith must be called in to our relief. It would certainly be the height of folly to deny to that Being who broke open the great fountains of the deep to effect the deluge—and afterwards, to compel the dispersion of mankind to people the globe, directed the confusion of languages—powers inferior in their nature to these. After these wondrous proofs of Omnipotency, it will be absurd to deny the possibility of infusing instinct into the brute creation. *Deus est anima brutorum*; "God himself is the soul of brutes:"—His pleasure must have determined their will, and directed several species, and even whole genera, by impulse irresistible, to move by slow progression to their destined regions. But for that, the llama and the pacos might still have inhabited the heights of Armenia and some more neighbouring Alps, instead of labouring to gain the distant Peruvian Andes; the whole genus of armadillos, slow of foot, would never have quitted the torrid zone of the Old World for that of the New; and the whole tribe of monkeys would have gamboled together in the forests of India, instead of dividing their residence between the shades of Indostan and the deep forests of the Brasils. Lions and tigers might have infested the hot parts of the New World, as the first do



do the deserts of Africa, and the last the provinces of Asia; or the pantherine animals of South America might have remained additional scourges with the savage beasts of those ancient continents. The Old World would have been overstocked with animals; the New remained an unanimated waste! or both have contained an equal portion of every beast of the earth. Let it not be objected, that animals bred in a southern climate, after the descent of their parents from the ark, would be unable to bear the frost and snow of the rigorous north, before they reached South America, the place of their final destination. It must be considered, that the migration must have been the work of ages; that in the course of their progress each generation grew hardened to the climate it had reached; and that after their arrival in America, they would again be gradually accustomed to warmer and warmer climates, in their removal from north to south, as they had in the reverse, or from south to north. Part of the tigers still inhabit the eternal snows of Ararat, and multitudes of the very same species live, but with exalted rage, beneath the line, in the burning soil of Borneo or Sumatra; but neither lions or tigers ever migrated into the New World. A few of the first are found in India and Persia, but they are found in numbers only in Africa. The tiger extends as far north as western Tartary, in latitude  $40^{\circ} 50'$ , but never has reached Africa."

In fine, the conjectures of the learned respecting the vicinity of the Old and New, are now, by the discoveries of our great navigators, lost in conviction; and, in the place of imaginary hypotheses, the real place of migration is uncontrovertibly pointed out. Some (from a passage in Plato) have extended over the Atlantic, from the straits of Gibraltar to the coast of North and South America, an island equal in size to the continents of Asia and Africa; over which had passed, as over a bridge, from the latter, men and animals; wool-headed negroes, and lions and tigers, none of which ever existed in

the New World. A mighty sea arose, and in one day and night engulfed this stupendous tract, and with it every being which had not completed its migration into America. The whole negro race, and almost every quadruped, now inhabitants of Africa, perished in this critical day. Five only are to be found at present in America; and of these only one, the bear, in South America:—Not a single custom, common to the natives of Africa and America, to evince a common origin. Of the quadrupeds, the bear, stag, wolf, fox, and weasel, are the only animals which we can pronounce with certainty to be found on each continent. The stag, fox, and weasel, have made also no farther progress in Africa than the north; but on the same continent the wolf is spread over every part, yet is unknown in South America, as are the fox and weasel. In Africa and South America the bear is very local, being met with only in the north of the first, and on the Andes in the last. Some cause unknown arrested its progress in Africa, and impelled the migration of a few into the Chilian Alps, and induced them to leave unoccupied the vast tract from North America to the lofty Cordilleras.

Allusions have often been made to some remains on the continent of America, of a more polished and cultivated people, when compared with the tribes which possessed it on its first discovery by Europeans. Mr. Barton, in his *Observations on some Part of Natural History*, Part I. has collected the scattered hints of Kalm, Carver, and some others, and has added a plan of a regular work, which has been discovered on the banks of the Muskingum, near its junction with the Ohio. These remains are principally stone-walls, large mounds of earth, and a combination of these mounds with the walls, suspected to have been fortifications. In some places the ditches and the fortresses are said to have been plainly seen; in others, furrows, as if the land had been ploughed.

The mounds of earth are of two kinds: they are artificial tumuli, designed as repositories for the dead; or they are of a greater size, for the purpose

purpose of defending the adjacent country; and with this view they are artificially constructed, or advantage is taken of the natural eminences, to raise them into a fortification.

The remains near the banks of the Muskingum, are situated about one mile above the junction of that river with the Ohio, and one hundred and sixty miles below Fort Pitt. They consist of a number of walls and other elevations, of ditches, &c. altogether occupying a space of ground about three hundred perches in length, and from about one hundred and fifty to twenty-five or twenty in breadth. The town, as it has been called, is a large level, encompassed by walls, nearly in the form of a square, the sides of which are from ninety-six to eighty-six perches in length. These walls are, in general, about ten feet in height above the level on which they stand, and about twenty feet in diameter at the base, but at the top they are much narrower; they are at present overgrown with vegetables of different kinds, and, among others, with trees of several feet diameter. The chasms, or openings in the walls, were probably intended for gateways? they are three in number at

each side, besides the smaller openings in the angles. Within the walls there are three elevations, each about six feet in height, with regular ascents to them: these elevations considerably resemble some of the eminences already-mentioned, which have been discovered near the river Mississippi. This author's opinion is, That the Tolticas, or some other Mexican nation, were the people to whom the mounts and fortifications, which he has described, owe their existence; and that those people were probably the descendants of the Danes. The former part of this conjecture is thought probable, from the similarity of the Mexican mounts and fortifications described by the Abbé Clavigero, and other authors, to those described by our author; and from the tradition of the Mexicans, that they come from the north-west: for, if we can rely on the testimony of late travellers, fortifications similar to those mentioned by Mr. Barton have been discovered as far to the north as Lake Pepin; and we find them, as we approach to the south, even as low as the coasts of Florida.

*(To be continued.)*

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

HASSARAC AND SELIMA.

**A**T the conclusion of the fifth Heigyra, there resided in the city of Bagdat, a man, whose name was Bennasker; his riches exceeded those of the wealthiest of his countrymen, and his house was as magnificent as the palace of the Caliph; he was benevolent, affable, and humane. The person whom the will of the most High had condemned to poverty, his hand was ever open to relieve; his pity for those who were involved in misery, was as the mercy of Alla to degenerate mortals, yet still a latent wish disturbed his tranquillity, and interrupted his repose. He sighed for a companion in the path of life; the god of his fathers heard his prayer; a fair one, beautiful as the Hourri, soft, and gentle as the zephyrs, pure as the dew of heaven,

and wiser than the daughters of men, was given to his arms. Bennasker received the blessing with transport, he clasped Abima to his bosom, and often did he congratulate himself upon his felicity; but his soul bowed not before Alla, and the Most High beheld the affections of Bennasker weaned from the God of his fathers, and that in his present happiness he remembered not the hand which bestowed it.

The great Alla therefore issued his supreme command, that Abima should be snatched from his bosom.

The hand of death quickly closed the eyes of Abima, and her soul was waisted to the mansion of the blessed.

Bennasker now resigned himself to the bitterest lamentations; his days were spent in anguish, and his nights in



in never-ceasing complaints. The hand of peace no longer closed his eyes in refreshing slumbers, and rest was a stranger to his soul.

In the visions of the night, it pleases Alla sometimes to instruct and reprove the children of the dust.

At the solemn hour of midnight, when the sons and daughters of misery forget their woes, and the children of labour take their rest, Bennaker was stretched upon his couch, his eyes for a moment ceased to weep, and his bosom to remember its pangs. The thunders of Alla shook the house; and, surrounded with the light of heaven, the Angel of Instruction, sent from the Most High, appeared, and thus addressed the trembling Bennaker: "Why, O man! dost thou repine at the will of the Almighty? Thou art deprived of the idol of thy heart; but the dispensations of Providence are ever guided by unerring wisdom and justice. Thou sufferedst the love of Abima to lead thee into error, therefore thou seest her no more; but thou hast yet a child: be careful lest thy ingratitude should provoke Alla to snatch from thee thy remaining comfort; let not the thoughts of past felicity interrupt the present, but be thou resigned to the will of Heaven." Bennaker heard with trembling the voice of the angel; yet his soul refused to obey the celestial dictates, and still was he heard to repine at the decrees of omniscience, when, as he was one evening walking in his garden, and reflecting upon his beloved Abima, the cries of his child assailed his ears; from what quarter they arose, the hurry and confusion of his thoughts prevented him from discerning; he immediately flew to its apartment, when he found that the child was gone; and, not doubting but some ruffians had robbed him of his little treasure, Bennaker immediately commanded the most diligent search to be made after the babe, but the servants returned without success. Not doubting therefore but this was designed as a punishment for his disobedience, and tired of the world, and its vain pursuits, he retired to spend his re-

maining days in contemplation on those that were gone for ever.

Near twenty years had elapsed since his seclusion from the world, when, at that season when the God of life and light re-animates the verdant creation, he left his peaceful dwelling on the plains of Indostan, to offer up his adorations to the tomb of Mahomet, the prophet of Alla the father of the faithful. Long had his weary limbs travelled over the scorching sands of the sultry East, ere he arrived at the place where the sacred remains of the prophet are deposited. Raptures pure as the imagination of Mahomet filled his astonished mind when he beheld the tomb suspended in the temple; he remembered the commands contained in the sacred Alcoran, prostrated himself before the tomb, and thus addressed the holy prophet:

"O thou, to whom Alla has granted the light of wisdom and knowledge, whose hand when thou wert on earth was stretched forth to relieve the necessitous, and whose lips spake the words of instruction, grant unto thy servant that he may so conduct himself, as always to obey the will of heaven, and never swerve from its holy commandments. He has long led a life of retirement, and, like the fowl which the fox seeketh to devour, he has been contemned by the world and despised by the wicked; he has felt, there is something which he ought to have done, and therefore he is come to pray for instruction, and implore assistance."

At the instant Bennaker concluded his prayer, a vivid flame surrounded the tomb, and a form more beauteous than the daughters of Circassia appeared to the eyes of the admiring sage, and thus addressed him:

"Bennaker, the prophet has heard thy prayer, and has attended to the voice of thy supplication; he has taken pity on thy sufferings, and has commissioned me to warn thee of greater ills which, such his decree, are only to be prevented by your own exertions. Bennaker! thou hast a son, who is plunged into the greatest misery, in the city of Bagdat:—'Tis

thou alone canst rescue him from impending danger, and in thy hand is the appointment of his fate; if thou should'st by thy endeavours discover his retreat, his life will be saved, and thou shalt be happy. Consider, O Bennasker, thy perilous situation, and hasten to the relief of thy suffering offspring. I must disclose no further, and therefore leave thee to execute the commands of the prophet."—At these words the form disappeared, and Bennasker, whose eyes were riveted to the earth, for some time continued motionless; at length, recovering himself, he bowed submission, and departed.

Tho' emaciated by his late fatigue, he travelled towards Bagdat, hoping to discover his son, and, strengthened by that hope, he proceeded with comfort and satisfaction to himself. He at length arrived at his native city, but alas! what was his concern when he fought in vain for the least vestige of his former magnificent dwelling, when he beheld his beautiful garden a wilderness, and in the place of the aromatic herb discerned the ungrateful thorn; his tears watered the place, and his reflections upon the ravages of time filled his breast with sorrow, yet he proceeded on his inquiry. Passing the spot where public offenders are executed, he perceived an unusual crowd gathered together to behold a suffering criminal; Bennasker directed his eyes to the place, and saw a young man in the bloom of youth preparing to launch into the presence of Alla; the words of the angel occurring to his remembrance, he eagerly inquired the name of the criminal, and learning it was Hassarac, he hastily rushed through the crowd, and thus addressed the Caliph of Bagdat:

"O thou, in whose hands is the dispensation of life and death, attend to the words of thy servant: I once was wealthy and honourable as thou art, my riches were innumerable, and the name of Bennasker was known over all the nations of the East; but I repined at the dispensation of Alla, in taking from me my wife Abima, and the God of my fathers punished me by depriving me of

my only child; avenge not therefore, O mighty Caliph, the sins of Bennasker upon Hassarac, but issue thy commandment that I may suffer in the place of my son; if thou art a father thou wilt know my feelings, if not, thou may'st imagine my distress; if Hassarac is guilty, I am the cause, in depriving him of affluence, peace, and comfort, which were in my power to have bestowed upon him, had he continued in the house of his father."

At the conclusion of this address, the caliph was observed to be greatly distressed, and he ordered the execution to be postponed for one day. In the mean time Bennasker learnt that his son was condemned for murdering his dearest friend; amazed at the intelligence, his heart failed him, and he could scarcely support himself till the ensuing day.

Early the next morning, the caliph commanded that Bennasker and Hassarac should be brought before him; they immediately obeyed the summons, and the eyes of the caliph brightened at their approach. Bennasker and Hassarac prostrated themselves before him, and heard with surprise the following address:

"I have examined, O Hassarac, thy case: I have found that thou art guilty, but there is room for mercy; thou lovest a virgin, beautiful as the inhabitants of heaven, and thy power was exerted to preserve her honour. The friend of thy bosom attempted to oppose thee in the possession of thy love, but thy arm was mighty, he fell, and died; accept then, O Hassarac! pardon for thy crime, and let the remainder of thy days he spent with thy father, and the woman of thy choice."

At these words the caliph retired from the apartment, and left the astonished Bennasker and Hassarac to enjoy their own happiness, and meditate on their own felicity. Hassarac then besought his father to permit him to be united to the beautiful Selima. Bennasker consented, and the praises of the caliph for his generosity to Hassarac, resounded through all the city of Bagdat.

Bennasker, transported with unexpected felicity, immediately delivered



livered the following address to the citizens of Bagdat, assembled round the palace :

“ Fail not, O ye inhabitants of Bagdat ! to apply to Mahomet in all your distresses. Had I not journeyed to the holy tomb, I might still have remained in obscurity and retirement, and my son have suffered an ignominious death : let then my example

produce such effects, that the city of Bagdat may become a place, where mercies of Alla shall be continually repeated.”

He then departed with Hassarac for the dwelling of Selima. The two lovers were united, and lived ever after examples of piety and conjugal affection.

### THE OLD SAILOR.

D'ALONVILLE's\* heart revolted as the execution of his scheme approached. To enter his native country in disguise, in the mean garb of a peasant, and representing one of the persons whose politics he detested, appeared to him so degrading, that he was sometimes tempted to renounce his plan of seeking De Touranges and St. Remi, and enter a volunteer in one of those corps of emigrants that were now assembling, and which were to be paid by some of the combined powers : but the advice of Ellesmere, and the solemn engagement with Madame de Touranges, and still more with her daughter, which he thought himself bound to fulfil ; together with a belief, that, if parties could be formed in the interior of the kingdom, it would be of more effectual service than any attempt without ; conquered his repugnance, and he determined to pursue his first intention.

He had a long journey to make through the whole of Picardy and Normandy ; and every precaution was necessary to secure his reaching the place of his destination. To appear as a prisoner escaped from the Austrians, seemed to be the least objectionable means of making his way back to his own country. He found that there were prisoners confined at Bruges ; he went thither, and found it easy to procure a sort of certificate from one of them, with his name, and that of the national regiment in which he served. He made himself master of the circumstances that hap-

pened when this man and a party of French were taken prisoners ; and, arranging the story he should have to tell, he furnished himself with a number of small assignats, which he placed in the linings of his clothes ; and, depositing what other money he had in safe hands at Ostend, he departed thence on an evening, and took the road to Dunkirk. His former walk to Rosenheim had given him considerable experience, and he reached Dunkirk without any difficulty. The examination he underwent there was more strict than he expected : but certain of not being personally known, and having taken every precaution against being suspected for a gentleman, he answered the enquiries that were made with so much clearness, that he was believed, and was offered either the permission of returning to his own province, which he said was Normandy, or to enter into any of the regiments at Dunkirk. He told a very plausible story of an old mother, and of his other brothers being all killed in the service ; which was also believed ; and he even received a certificate from the commanding officer of the town, granting him a furlough for six weeks, and describing him as Jacques Philippe Coudé, serving heretofore in such a regiment ; lately escaped from imprisonment ; who had desired leave to revisit his family before he returned to the service of his country. Thus provided, and having well studied the cant of the day, he embarked at Dunkirk, in a small sloop, for St. Maloes. The

\* D'Alonville is the hero of the piece : he endeavours to return to his native country, under the disguise of a French republican prisoner, who has escaped from the Austrians, in order to find out his two friends.

first two days the voyage were prosperous; but, on the third, they were chased by an English privateer, and D'Alonville, as the vessel gained upon them, felt inconceivable uneasiness from the apprehension of being taken, and carried to an English prison, under circumstances so degrading, that it would be almost impossible ever to vindicate himself to his English friends. When he had for more than an hour suffered an alarm that he dared not avow, it fortunately abated by a change of the wind, which enabled the sloop in which he was to run into Cherbourg; and D'Alonville, thinking himself most fortunate to escape such a return to a country where his only hopes of happiness were fixed, would not again subject himself to the same danger, but quitted the sloop, and hired a small boat under pretence of dispatch, which he knew must keep along-shore; and the master of which agreed, for a very small consideration, to land him at St. Maloes; from thence to the town of Merol, which St. Remi had named for the place of their rendezvous, was about five and forty or fifty miles, situated on the extreme edge of the province of Brittany.

It was in an afternoon, toward the middle of March, that D'Alonville went on-board a long fishing-boat, rowed by an old, but athletic, inhabitant of Cherbourg, with the assistance of a lad of thirteen. They kept as close to the shore as possible; and, as night came on, hauled still nearer to the rocks, as they intended, in case of bad weather, to land: but the evening was calm and serene; and the owner of the boat, who appeared to have some other business at St. Maloes beside conveying D'Alonville thither, was disposed to make the most speed in his power; and the wind was fortunately in his favour, and filled his little sail with a steady breeze. D'Alonville, who had taken his passage as a man from the northern army, who had been a prisoner escaped to Dunkirk, and was now sent by the commander to St. Maloes on public business, had been so fatigued by the repetition of this fiction, and so reluctantly acted the part it im-

posed on him, that, having once given this account of himself to his conductor, he did not wish to enter into farther conversation, being but too well assured, that, in answer to any question he might ask, as to the state of the country, or the disposition of its inhabitants, he should hear nothing but what would add to the painful sensations with which he approached it.

It was midnight; a few stars, and a waning moon, already fading in the distant waves, afforded all the light they had. The old seaman kept at the helm, frequently fortifying himself with a cordial of eau-de-vie, reinforced with repeated quantities of tobacco. The boy was sleeping on a bench that crossed the gun-wales; and the silence of the night was unbroken, save by the roar of the surf on the beach, which they were near enough distinctly to hear in a dull and hollow-murmur. Uneasy as were the thoughts of D'Alonville, this monotony of sounds, and the fatigue he had for so many days gone through, together with the supposition that he was now at least in temporary security, induced him to indulge the heaviness that was coming upon him. Since he had escaped any suspicion as far on his way as Cherbourg, he had there ventured to purchase a small pair of pistols, which he concealed within his waistcoat. He knew his companions thought him unarmed, and he was not sorry to be provided with these as a defence; not that he suspected them of any intention to take advantage of that circumstance, but there was a sullen silence about the old man that did not altogether please him; and he had more than once occasion to remark, how much, since the revolution, the character of the lower class of the French people were changed. Notwithstanding the little confidence he had in his boatman, he put on the red cap with which he had provided himself, and, wrapping his coarse coat round him, he soon fell asleep; from which he was, after some time, suddenly startled, by the noise of fire-arms, which appeared to be so near him, that he sprang upon his feet, and looked round him; but all remained just as it was before forgetfulness overtook



overtook him; except that the vessel was immediately beneath the high cliffs that bound the land. The old seaman was at the helm, but he had lowered his sails; and the boy paddled the boat along, while he guided it slowly among some high pointed rocks that seemed to rise here perpendicularly out of the water, which was deep, and still around them.

D'Alonville asked, hastily, where they were? and what was the noise they heard? The man answered, in a mournful and reluctant sort of way, that they were close under the town of Granville, on the western coast of Normandy; "And for the noise," said he, "they are at the old business, I suppose, killing some of the people who happen to have said or done any thing against the new government." This opinion seemed to be founded in truth; for the cries of the victims, and the shouts of the executioners, were distinctly heard after another volley of fire-arms. D'Alonville shuddered, yet felt half impelled to leap on-shore, and throw himself among the demons who were busied in this work of death. "Are you going to land?" enquired he, as the boat still seemed to get near the shore. "Have you any business in this town?"—"Who, I? replied the man:—"No, thank the *bon Dieu*, I have no business there, and I assure you, no mind at all to be among them." "Are they then bad people in this town of Granville? What! are they royalists, my friend? Are they enemies of liberty?"

"Liberty! liberty!" muttered the man, with an oath half stifled—"Liberty! but you have been in the midst of all, it seems, and like it, I suppose, though one would think you must have had pretty near enough of it—*Sacre Dieu!* but one must hold one's tongue."

"Why, how is this?" said D'Alonville, agreeably disappointed in the principles of his sea-faring companion. "Why are you not a friend to the republic—to our glorious new privileges? Why, is it possible you can speak thus of our constitution, of our liberty?"

"Bah!" cried the old man, peevishly. "Tell me what good we have got by it."

D'Alonville enumerated the advantages that have been held out, in all the parading terms with which they have been dressed to catch the multitude. "Ah! yes, to be sure," answered the sailor; "now I'll tell you what I have got by all this, *mort Dieu!* I have been out of luck, sure enough, if so many blessings were going about, to have caught none of them; but, on the contrary, *diable!* I've had nothing but plagues and sorrows; but, I suppose, if I complain to you, Monsieur le Soldat, I shall be clapped up in prison, as soon as you catch me on-shore."

"If you think so, friend, don't trust me with your confidence; but I assure you, though I am a soldier, and have been at the army, that I don't want to hurt any man for his opinions."

"I don't much care," said the man; "I'd as soon go to the guillotine, I think, as not, unless times mend." "I am sorry," cried D'Alonville, "they are so bad with you; but what have you particularly to complain of?"

"Why, in the first place, I had four sons grown up, fine young men as I ever saw; the shortest of them was as high as you are, and stouter; the eldest of them belonged to a merchant-ship that traded to the islands—he was killed by the black people at St. Domingo. The second was in the king's service—an excellent sailor—he was forced, whether he would or not, to sea in a republican vessel; and it is only a fortnight since I have known that he has been taken by the English, and is now in an English prison, poor lad! and they say that the English, who, when I was a prisoner among them in the last war, treated us very well, and even gave me my parole, so that I suffered little, are now grown very severe, and endeavour to make confinement as bad as it can be; so I think I shall never see my son again." "You served then in the last war?" said D'Alonville. "Yes," replied the old man; "and

"and was in two or three engagements; in the last I was a boatswain, by favour of my commander, who, when we were exchanged, and went back to France, took me particularly under his protection; and my wife was received into the family of his lady, who brought up my daughter; my poor dear girl!"

"You have not been unfortunate in regard to her too, I hope," said D'Alonville.

"Ah!" cried the sailor, with a deep sigh, "that is what hurts me most of all—but I will tell you how it happened: my third boy, a fine fellow of nineteen, was taken when he was quite a child into the service of my commander, and brought up to be his servant. Alas! he was with him when he was seized and carried to prison on the fatal second of Sept. and he perished with him in the Abbaye. The fourth, who was but a year younger, was so enraged at this injustice and cruelty, (for what had Michel done that deserved death?) that he quitted the revolutionary army where he had entered, and went to serve under the princes in Flanders; where, I believe, he fell the end of last year in the retreat, for I have never heard of him since."

The poor man was so affected, that his voice failed him.

D'Alonville, however fearful of betraying himself, could not conceal that he sympathized with this unfortunate father. "Perhaps," said he, "your fears may be groundless; though you have not heard from him, your fourth son may survive."

"I have no hope," he replied; "had he not been dead, I am very sure he would have found some means of letting me hear of him; for he was a dutiful boy, and knew what his mother and I suffered about his brothers—Ah! no; I have none left now, unless Pierre should survive a long imprisonment: I have none left but that lad you see there; and, as soon as he is old enough to carry arms, he too will be put under requisition, and be compelled to serve, whether he likes it or no."

"But your daughter," said D'Alonville—

"My daughter," resumed the poor man; "my daughter was the hope of my life; my commander's lady took her, and brought her up to be about her person; and she was pretty, and every body admired her; a reputable tradesman at Paris would have married her, but Madame de Blanzac, her mistress, thought her too young, and desired her to stay a year or two, till her lover was got a little forwarder in the world. She was at Paris at the dreadful time when her poor brother was murdered; she was not indeed in prison, but remained with her mistress at an hotel, where she saw four people killed before her eyes; she was so terrified, as to be immediately deprived of her senses, and was rather, I fear, a burden, than of any use to the lady she served—when she found means to escape to England, after the murder of her husband. During the voyage, my poor girl recovered some recollection; but on the vessel's arriving in the port of Poole, where they were to land, the cries of the sailors, and the loud voices of the people who surrounded the ship, brought so strongly to her mind the noises she had heard at Paris during the massacre, that, in the frenzy which this terror occasioned, she flew upon deck, and, before any one was aware of what she intended, she threw herself into the sea."

A dead silence ensued for a moment; the old man could not proceed.

D'Alonville, at length, said, "And was there no attempt made to save her?"

"Oh! yes," replied he, "and she was saved from the water, but her senses were quite gone. I do not know how Madame de Blanzac, distressed as she was herself, was able to sustain the additional burden of my poor girl, in such a condition; but she promised never to forsake her, and she kept her word. Some ladies in England, to whom her melancholy story became known, were very kind to my unfortunate daughter, and tried to get her restored to her senses; but it was all in vain: they were irrecoverable; and she is now in one of the public hospitals of London, where lunatics are received."

The



The laborious life to which the old sailor had been inured, had not hardened his heart—Nature had still a powerful influence; and his voice bore testimony to the tribute he paid it, as he thus concluded his mournful narrative.

D'Alonville would have spoken comfort to him, but he could find none. These wounds to domestic happiness he knew could not be cured. He remained silent, therefore, reflecting on the dreadful havoc that civil war had made in his country within so short a space; and he shuddered when he trusted his imagination for a moment with the horrors that were yet to come. He was now ashamed of having suspected his conductor of designs against him, and of having mistaken the sad silence of sorrow for the sullen meditation of the assassin. They were, by this time, at some distance from the place where the report of fire-arms had been heard; and D'Alonville, endeavouring to shake off the melancholy impression his companion's history had left on his mind, enquired why he had kept his boat so near the shore as they passed under the rocks of Granville?

The sailor replied, "that there were frequently centinels placed on the cliffs, to prevent those from escaping who were called disaffected; and that, had the boat been discerned or heard, they would have been fired upon with very little ceremony; but that under the cliffs they were less likely to be perceived."

D'Alonville then entered into conversation on the present appearance of France, and received an account of the desolation that reigned throughout the northern provinces, which, when he landed, and surveyed the state of the ground, did not appear to have been exaggerated.

Without hazarding too much by confidence in his boatman, they became much better acquainted before they had finished their voyage; D'Alonville discovered, in the course of their conversation, that his conductor would more willingly put him on-shore at any place near St. Maloes than in the port; and D'Alonville was much more willing to land in

some remote part of the coast. They therefore perfectly agreed in their plans, and keeping at some miles distance from the land the whole day, as if they were engaged in fishing, as night approached they drew toward the shore, about five miles to the west of St. Maloes; where, in a small creek, formed by projecting rocks, they might land, and by a winding path gain the country.

The wind, which had hitherto been extremely favourable, still blew to the shore; but it had risen as the sun set, and the water, curling and whitening as it rolled toward the beach, threatened an approaching storm. The vessel, therefore, could carry no sail; and the old man, taking in his canvas, rowed slowly and laboriously toward the point where they had agreed to land. As the boat mounted the dark waves, or sunk between them, and as the coast before him rose indistinctly, or wholly disappeared, D'Alonville could not help reflecting on his strange situation, returning thus to the land of his ancestors. The cliffs, whose rugged forms were distinguishable through the gloom of evening, were the boundaries of Brittany! Once before he had seen them in returning from an excursion of pleasure, when, in his early youth he had, with his father, visited Brest, and gone back by water with several ladies and friends. He recollected all the parties; not one, perhaps, now survived, unless it was his brother, of whom he dreaded to hear; but with whom, in the part of Brittany to which he was going, he comforted himself that it was probable he should meet. At length, with very painful emotions, he saw himself once more on-shore on the coast of France. He paid his conductor more than their agreement, and took his name, and the name of his son, whom he supposed to be a prisoner in England. There was a possibility that, should he ever return thither, he might find the young man living, and relieve the anguish of his unfortunate father, to whom, however, he forbore to hold out a hope that might never be realised.

ANECDOTES.

## A N E C D O T E S.

TUNSTAL, Bishop of London.

WHEN the bishops made great complaints of Tindal's translation of the New Testament, Tunstal, then Bishop of London, being a man of great moderation, would hurt no one, yet endeavoured all he could to get all the books of Tindal and other reformers into his hands.

So, being at Antwerp, in the year 1529, he sent for one Packington, an English merchant there, and desired him to see how many New Testaments of Tindal's translation he might have for money. Packington, who was a secret favourer of Tindal's, told him what the bishop proposed, which Tindal was glad of, for, being aware of some errors, he wished to print a second edition, but was too poor to undertake it until the first was sold off.

The bishop purchased all the remaining copies, brought them over to England, and publicly burnt them in Cheapside. Next year, when the second edition was finished, many more were brought over, and one Constantine being taken up for dispersing them in London, the lord-chancellor, in a private examination, promised him that if he would reveal who on this side the water much encouraged and supported them in the expences of printing, &c. at Antwerp, he should not be harmed. This Constantine accepted of, and told him in reply, Truly, my lord, the greatest encouragement we have had hath been from the Bishop of London, who bought up more than half of the copies of the first impression to burn them in Cheapside.

ROUBILLIAC.

This great statuary, being on a visit in Wiltshire, happened to take a walk

in a church-yard near Bow-wood, just as the congregation were coming out of church; and meeting with one Lord S—— (though perfect strangers to one another) they entered into a conversation, which ended in an invitation to dinner.

When dinner was announced, and the company all seated at table, Roubilliac discovered a fine antique bust of one of the Roman empresses, which stood over a side-table, when, immediately running to it with a degree of enthusiastic admiration, he exclaimed, "Good G—d, what an air! What a pretty mouth! What a *tout ensemble!*" &c. &c.

The company began to stare at one another for some time, and Roubilliac regained his seat; but instead of eating his dinner, or scarcely shewing the least attention to any thing that was said to him, he every now and then broke out into exclamations in praise of the bust. The company, concluding he was mad, began to sink away one by one, till Lord S—— was almost left totally alone.

This determined his lordship to be a little more particular, and he now, for the first time, asked his name.

"My name!" says the other; "what, do you not know me then? My name is Roubilliac."—"I beg your pardon, sir," says his lordship—"I now feel that I should have known you."

Then, calling on the company who had only retired to the next room, "Ladies and gentlemen, you may come in; this is no absolute madman. This is M. Roubilliac, the greatest statuary of his day—and only occasionally mad in the admiration of his art."

THE English fleet, under Lord Bridport, sailed in quest of the French on the 11th of June: it consisted of thirteen ships of the line, and the French were nearly of the same force. At day-break on the 22d the French fleet were in sight; but they wished not to come to action, and it was not till after a chase which lasted all that day and the following night that they were brought to an engagement, which ended gloriously for the British arms; as, after about three hours close fight, three French ships of the line, the *Alexander*, *Formidable*, and *Tigre*, struck to the British flag. —The battle was fought close in with Port l'Orient; and, if the enemy had not been protected and sheltered by the land, there is every reason to believe that a much greater number, if not all the line-of-battle ships, would have been taken or destroyed. The beautiful Representation of this Engagement, herewith given, is to be placed in the annexed History of the Wars of England. SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## ODE ON THE WAR.

**S**COURGE of vindictive heav'n! we feel  
The force of thy wide-wasting steel  
And fury of thy arm?  
Before thy car with frantic cry  
Discord and death and famine fly,  
Terror and wild alarm.

Mad power of war! can nothing bind  
The rage of thy insatiate mind,  
And stay thy bloody hand?  
For ever must thy trumpets found,  
Excite the madd'ning nations round,  
And shake the suff'ring land?

Stern Winter o'er the blasted plain  
Her icy fetters spread in vain;  
To check thy wild career:  
Then Spring, from out her mantle grey,  
Trembling beheld thy lawless sway  
Usurp her infant year.

Thy waters, Rhine! whose hast'ning tide  
With joyful course was wont to glide  
Thy blooming vines to lave,  
Now groaning through their oozy bed  
Scarce roll, encumber'd with the dead,  
And blush in every wave.

Through ev'ry sweet sequester'd grove,  
That warbled once with notes of love,  
The din of battle rings:  
The Naiad of each silver stream  
Sees o'er its breast the armour gleam,  
And seeks her inmost springs.

The fierce ungovern'd pest invades  
The Muse's consecrated shades,  
And storms their calm retreat:  
While frightened Genius, from the skies  
Shakes her reluctant plumes, and plies  
To gain her native seat.

O come, sweet Peace! with melting lay,  
And charm his soft'ned rage away,  
With harmony divine!  
If, when the Thracian struck the lyre,  
Tigers resign'd their savage ire,  
Sure man must yield to thine!

But, ah! if, impotent to move,  
Thy soul-subduing song should prove  
But sung, sweet nymph, in vain;  
Yet shall a sterner voice command  
The fiend to shun thy favourite land,  
And bound him by the main.

## THE DANCING LOVER.

*From the New Musical Piece of "The  
Three and the Deuce."*

"**M**USIC is the food of Love:"  
But what's the cure?—

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Why, dance to music, to be sure;  
With a fal lal, la!

Dear Mary's cold heart I attempted to  
thaw,

But never could melt it away.

Cries Mary, "For you I shall ne'er care  
a straw:"

Says I, "I must, then, dance the hay."  
With a fal, lal, la!

When I ogled sweet Bess, from my glan-  
ces she shrunk,

For she had a bosom of steel—

I was drunk with my passion—so mortally  
drunk,

That nothing would do but a reel.

With a fal, lal, la!

Extremities in love, 'tis said,

Each lover knows:

If women then,

Bewilder men,

In that extremity the head,

'Tis best, no doubt,

To jig them out,

At that extremity—the toes.

With a fal, lal, la!

Then a fig for young Cupid—a fig for his  
smart,

A fig for each maid that I meet;

No faint of a woman takes hold of my  
heart,

While St. Vitus takes care of my feet.

With a fal, lal, la!

## THE NEGLECTED SAILOR.

**S**HALL the brave tar, though rough  
untaught his mind,  
Sink in oblivion, by the Muse forgot,  
Who many a night, as beats the howling  
wind,

Cheers his true messmate, glories in his lot!

And O, if down his war-worn cheek there  
flows

One gentle current for his girl on shore,

Call but to arms, his breast enraptur'd  
glows,

And the soft transport beats for Poll no  
more!

Rough, yet majestic, terrible in war,

And proudly daring, he no danger knows,

Through the dread fight, while echo from  
afar

Returns the dying murmur of the foes!

Yet inly calm he mounts the dang'rous  
steep,

O'er the rough billow and the dashing  
wave,

While

Whilst on his native element—the deep,  
He meets his glory where he finds a grave!

What tho' no laurels from old Ocean rise,  
No purple sweets in bright succession bloom,

No funeral requiem 'fail the list'ning skies,  
Or sculptur'd marble deck a wat'ry tomb--

Yet the brave sea-boy shall outlive the dust.

Of earthly grandeur and the works of pride;

Th' historic page shall, faithful to its trust,  
Record the valiant hero how he died!

Led by the gallant chief, immortal Howe!  
To deathless fame, still honour'd is his doom,

The conqueror's wreath shall waving grace his brow,  
And float unfading o'er a wat'ry tomb!

And oft' when sailing o'er the azure main!  
In sight of Albion's cliffs and rocky way,  
The gallant tar shall, pointing, raise his strain,

And chaunt the glories of the well-fought day;

And whilst Rememb'rance holds her rooted seat,

Whilst Britons feel each Heav'n-born passion roll,

For the brave tar each gen'rous wish shall beat,

For the poor sea-boy melt the enraptur'd soul!

At last when clos'd the dangers of the day!  
The wounded tar shall seek some kindlier sky,

Let kind BENEVOLENCE then smoothe the way,

And sweet HUMANITY his wants supply!

Then shall the Muse in softer numbers flow,

And dove-like hover o'er his happier state;  
Ev'n sweet ELIZA's breast shall fondly glow,

And hail each god-like act that soothes the sailor's fate.

#### EPIGRAM ON QUEEN BESS.

QUEEN BESS once in council was given to know,  
That a corps of her cavalry fled from the foe;

But, in telling the tale, it came out un-  
wares,

That the corps were all tailors, and mounted on mares;

Nay then, cries the queen, let the rogues run away,

Since I neither have lost *man nor horse* in the fray!

#### TO ELIZA.

I Prithee send me back my heart,  
Since I cannot have thine;  
For, if from your's you will not part,  
Why then should you keep mine?

Yet, now I think on't, let it lie;

To send it me were vain:

For thou'st a thief in either eye,  
Will steal it back again.

#### FOLLY OF GAMING.

TO gild o'er avarice with a specious name,

To suffer torment, while for sport you came;

Time to reverse, and order to defy;

To make your temper subject to a dye;

To curse your fate for each unlucky throw,  
Your reason, sense, and prudence, to forego;

To call each power infernal to your part,  
To sit with anxious eyes and aching heart;  
Your fortune, time, and health, to throw away,

Is what our modern men of taste call  
"PLAY."

#### ODE TO MY TEA-POT.

*De Tea fabula narratur.*

O Thou! the fountain of that stream,  
whose pow'r  
Bestows delight at morn'sawakening hour,  
And after, when the beams of day-light fail,

Renew'st thy flow of fragrant beverage,—  
Hail!

With thee through life serenely can I pass,  
Renew my cup, and break the baleful glass;  
In health or sickness still I fly to thee,  
And my best comfort is a cup of tea.

Let the dull drunkard boast the pow'r di-  
vine,

Which shines resplendent in his mantling wine,

And bow in adoration:

Lo! China's scented leaf I choose,

In crystal fluid I infuse

The herb, and straight a drink shall flow  
That sooner shall assuage my woe,

And kindle exultation:

The grape's strong juice distracts the brain,  
All past a certain point is pain,

And bitterest vexation:

My bev'rage sets each sense awake,

My wit grows keen the more I take;

At night my couch invites to rest,

And down I sink in tranquil slumbers blest.

When wine goes round and noise alone  
presides,

Each bashful fair her modest beauty hides;

Far from thy circle she in fear retires:

Mine



Mine asks the lovely sex to grace  
With her bright charms the highest place,  
And modest wit inspires :

Round the rich altar men and maidens  
meet,

Age tells his tale, and youth the gallant  
feat ;

The social throng of old and young,  
The smart retort, the jest, the song,  
All intermingle and unite  
To wake the voice of love and virtue's  
soft delight.

If sickness rage, if fever's lingering fire  
Arouses thirst's still languishing desire,  
How oft from thee, faint smiling, have I  
quaff'd

Thy precious nectar in assuaging draught:  
Still would thy pow'r my flagging spirits  
raise

In faint but faithful accents to thy praise.

When pond'rous pains distract the head,  
Drink but thy stream, the weight is fled ;

Or if fatigue and labour tire,  
And ev'ry limb from toil respire,

And parching thirst's fierce burning rage,  
How kind, how lenient is thy cup,  
Rest gathers strength at every sup,  
And toil o'er-strain'd at length meets soft  
assuage.

If to the hungry veins strong potions flow,  
They set the blood on fire ;  
Thy bland, thy healing, draught, like  
balm,

Bestows to each a soothing calm,  
Soft as the tender veins desire,  
And for thy charms all other sweets forego.

Then still be thou my dear delight,  
At evening, morning, noon, or night :  
With thee I never will repine  
For flowing cups of rosy wine :  
And, while the toper drinks his glass with  
glee,

Mine be the FAIR, the FRIEND, good  
HEALTH, and TEA !

## FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *August 28.*

**B**Y a letter received from Admiral Duncan, dated on-board his majesty's ship *Venerable*, at sea, August 26, 1795, Texel, east-north-east, distant twenty-two leagues, it appears, that on the preceding day the Squadron had captured two French national brigs, one named *la Suffisante*, mounting fourteen eight and six pounders, and the other named *la Victorieuse*, mounting fourteen twelve-pounders, which were destined to cruise in the North Sea. The admiral speaks in terms of much commendation of the behaviour of Mr. Oswald, acting lieutenant on-board the *Spider* lugger, who first came up with, and afterwards took possession of, one of the brigs.

The same advices state, that the Dutch fleet had returned into the Texel.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *September 1.*

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Alms, of his Majesty's Ship Reunion, to Mr. Nepean, dated at Sea, August 23.*

IN pursuance of an order from Admiral Duncan, I proceeded to sea from the Downs with the *Isis* and *Vestal* under my command, and on the 12th instant was joined by his majesty's ship *Stag*. On the 22d, at one P. M. the high land of *Jedder* bearing N. E. two ships and a cutter were discovered to windward on the larboard tack, standing in shore, on which the Squadron made all sail after

them, and I made the signal to prepare for battle. The *Stag*, having had the advantage by a shift of wind, got up with the sternmost at a quarter past four, when she began the action, and at a quarter past five the ship with which she was engaged struck to her ; during which time the remainder of the Squadron were firing at and endeavouring to cut off the headmost frigate and cutter ; but, to my great mortification, they effected their escape in the harbour of *Egeroe*.

The frigate which struck to the *Stag* is called the *Alliance*, of 36 guns and 240 men ; the other that escaped, the *Argo*, of the same force, and the *Nelly* cutter, of 16 guns.

I have thought proper, for their lordships information, to send in the *Alliance* with my dispatches, by Lieutenant W. Huggell, of his majesty's ship under my command, whom I recommend to their favour ; but, as the *Alliance* struck to the *Stag*, have put Mr. Patric Tonym, her first lieutenant, to take charge of her, with orders to proceed to the *Nore*. As the Squadron has not yet received any material damage, I shall continue to execute the orders I received from Admiral Duncan.

Permit me to return my warmest and most sincere acknowledgements for the steady and gallant behaviour of Captain Yorke, of his majesty's ship *Stag*, his officers and ship's company ; and I likewise very much approve of the conduct

of the Isis and Vestal, with the ship's company of the Reunion under my command.

*A List of the Killed and Wounded on-board his Majesty's Ships, in the above action with the two Dutch Frigates.*

Reunion, 1 killed and 3 wounded. Isis, 2 wounded. Stag, 4 killed and 13 wounded. Vestal, none.

[The Alliance Dutch frigate, prize to his majesty's ship Stag, is an American-built vessel, pierced for 38 guns, and was one of the squadron commanded by the celebrated Paul Jones, when he took the Serapis frigate, off Flamborough Head.]

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-admiral Parker, Commander in chief of his Majesty's Ships at Jamaica, to Mr. Nepean, dated at Port Royal, Jamaica, June 29th.*

Yesterday I received a letter from the master of the Mosquito, dated Providence, the 9th instant, saying, that off Cape Maze (the east end of Cuba) they fell in with a republican sloop privateer called the National Razor, with six guns and 40 men, and engaged her from eight in the morning until three in the afternoon, when she struck to his majesty's colours; and that the next day they retook her prize, a Spanish brig from the Havanna to Carthagena, laden with flour; and being disabled he could not rejoin me at the Mole, St. Nicholas, but with a free wind made the best of his way to Providence, where he arrived with his prize and recapture in safety. Lieutenant M'Farlane, who commanded the Mosquito, was killed very early in the action.

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-admiral Parker, dated at the Mole, (St. Domingo,) July 12th.*

I am sorry to say my conjectures respecting the Fly Fish schooner are verified; she was captured on her passage down to Jamaica by two privateers, and carried into Leogane.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, Sept. 8.

*Extract of a Letter from Sir W. Sydney Smith, Knt. Captain of his Majesty's Ship Diamond, to Mr. Nepean, dated off Rock Douvre, September 4, 1795.*

I have the satisfaction to acquaint you, that his majesty's squadron under my orders has had some success since the date of my last letter. The corvette I was in pursuit of with the Diamond when I wrote last secured herself in Brehat. I had, however, the good fortune to fall

in with another at day-light in the morning of the 2d. Three quarters of an hour's chase brought us within gun-shot of her. She endeavoured to elude our pursuit in the labyrinth of rocks before Treguier, but the attempt proved fatal to her, as she struck on the Roenna, and soon after filled and fell over. We ceased our fire immediately, and sent out boats to save the crew. Her own boats, which were towing her, saved as many as they could carry. We were not fortunate enough to save more than nine. They reckon about twenty persons perished, besides the captain, who was washed off the wreck a few minutes before our boats reached them. Her name was l'Assemblée Nationale, of 22 guns, eight-pounders, on the main deck, and 200 men, from Brest to St. Maloes. The swell was so great that she went to pieces very soon, and we were obliged to anchor among the rocks to avoid a similar fate. Captain Dacres, who had been detached in the Childers, rejoined me this morning. On his return he fell in with and captured the Vigilant, French cutter, of 6 guns, one of the Garde du Côte in the bay of St. Brieux.

*Extract of a Letter from Lieut. Pearce, of the Marines, to his Grace the Duke of Portland, dated Tepic, New Galicia, 200 Leagues to the N. W. of the City of Mexico, April 25, 1795.*

I have the honour of acquainting your grace that, in obedience to your instructions, I proceeded from Monterley to Nootka, in company with Brigadier-general Alava, the officer appointed on the part of the court of Spain for finally terminating the negotiations relative to that port; where, having satisfied myself respecting the state of the country at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards, preparations were immediately made for dismantling the fort which the Spaniards had erected on an island that guarded the mouth of the harbour, and embarking the ordnance. By the morning of the 28th all the artillery were embarked; part on-board of his Catholic majesty's sloop of war Activo, and part on-board of the San Carlos guard-ship. Brigadier-general Alava and myself then met, agreeably to our respective instructions, on the place where formerly the British buildings stood, where we signed and exchanged the declaration and counter-declaration, for restoring those lands to his majesty, as agreed upon by the two courts. After which ceremony I ordered the British flag to be hoisted in token of possession, and the general gave directions for the troops to embark.

CROSSING



## CROSSING OF THE RHINE.

AMSTERDAM, Sept. 10.

Official intelligence has been received in this capital, of the French army, under the command of General Lefebvre, having in the morning of the 6th instant, crossed the Rhine at Botberg, near Urdingen. The passage was effected with the utmost celerity, and with the loss of a very few men. Düsseldorf was in possession of the republican troops in two hours after midnight. The following particulars are just arrived from Coblenz:

"COBLENZ, Aug. 28. If we may judge from the disposition of the French army, and the preparations that are making, an event of the utmost importance will happen in the course of this night. The pontoons, which were stationed at Gals, have been conveyed over land to the camp at Katlich; whither all the navigators in requisition are ordered to repair this evening.

"The chain of batteries erected by the French between the White Tower and Urmitz is now mounted with cannon and mortars of the widest calibre.

"Aug. 29. The blow is struck, and the first effort to effect the passage of the Rhine has been successful.

"The following are the particulars:

"Between Neuweid and the White Tower is situated an isle of considerable extent, which has not hitherto been occupied by either of the contending parties.

"Last night, however, this isle became the theatre of a sanguinary conflict. About two o'clock in the morning, 1200 Republicans embarked in small-craft, and being favoured by the darkness of the night effected their passage to the isle.

"The moment they gained a footing, they took the precaution of throwing up breast-works, in order to secure their position. But the noise of the pick-axes and shovels alarmed the Austrians, and a discharge of musketry having convinced them of the intentions of the French, they commenced a heavy and incessant fire of cannon and mortars, and at intervals kept up a well-directed fire of musketry. The French, in their turn, opened all their batteries on the enemy: and the reports were so tremendous that the earth shook several leagues from the scene of action.

"Nevertheless, the brave republicans maintained their enterprize with that calmness that characterizes true courage, and which always decides the fate of battles. They soon elevated their works, till they were enabled to establish themselves in the isle, and till the moment I now write to you all the efforts of the

enemy to dislodge them have been fruitless.

"Aug. 30. Fortune continues to favour the enterprizes of the republicans: yesterday at midnight, they came down from the Moselle with two flying bridges, for the purpose of conveying them to the island which they had made themselves masters of in the Rhine near Neuweid. No sooner had they arrived at the stone bridge, than the Austrians by the moonlight discovered them, and played on them from all their batteries.

"Never had we heard so dreadful a cannonade, and never had we witnessed so bold an attempt. In spite of the showers of balls and shells, which were poured on these intrepid voyagers, they glided tranquilly along the stream without firing a single shot. All the right bank of the river was in motion; the tocsin was rung in all the villages, and a continual fire pursued the flying bridges, which, however, arrived happily at their destination.

"What will appear incredible, but which is still averred to be true, is, that the French did not lose one man, in this singular and hazardous expedition. The flying bridges now serve to connect the inlet with the main land. The cannon of Ehrenbreiten have damaged some of the houses of Coblenz.

"P. S. We learn that Neuweid is almost entirely destroyed; and that, notwithstanding the conflagrations which have occurred in that place, the Austrians who are posted in the streets of the town still continue to fire on the French posts, who return the fire with much alacrity."

*Jourdan, Commander in chief of the Army of the Sambre and Meuse to the Committee of Public Safety:*

*Head-quarters at Düsseldorf, Sept. 7.*

Citizens Representatives, The left wing of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, the command of which I entrusted to General Kleber, crossed the Rhine yesterday morning, at three points. The General of Division Lefebvre, commanding the attack on the left, effected the passage at Eickkamp: he afterwards proceeded to Angerbach, leaving to the right a small stripe of Prussian territory. At Spick he forced the passage of Angerbach, and proceeded to Angermunde, after having driven the enemy from Hockum. The design of this movement was to turn the enemy, who, to the number of 20,000 men, were encamped between Witlard and Hockum—the expedient was perfectly successful. The General of Brigade Damas, commanding four battalions of grenadiers who composed the advanced guard

guard of this division, was wounded by a musket-ball, in shewing his brave companions the road to victory. The General of Division Grenier, commanding the center attack, crossed at Ardingen, in the center of the enemy's position. The General of Division Championet, commanding the attack to the right, crossed at Hamm, above Duffeldorf, at the same time that he bombarded and cannonaded that city from the left bank of the Rhine. The purport of this attack was to cut off the enemy's retreat, and to oblige them to retire by the mountains; but, to accomplish this, it was necessary to obtain forcible possession of Duffeldorf, and oblige the inhabitants to capitulate speedily, otherwise this detached corps would have run the risk of being driven into the Rhine. General Legrand, at the head of a battalion of grenadiers, proceeded to the glacis of the city with an intrepidity which merits the highest praises, after having killed or taken prisoners all the troops he met with in the bay of Hamm. The attack by storm being irresistible, the place surrendered, and was delivered up to the troops of the republic. The enemy retreated to Rattingen, leaving on the field of battle seven guns, several military waggons, and one hundred prisoners. The General of Division Tilly, commanding the reserve, crossed at Eickamp, after the division of General Lefebvre. On this important occasion General Kleber displayed the highest military talents. The generals of division and brigade executed

with the greatest judgment and the highest courage the orders they received. The General of Brigade of Engineers Dejen, charged with throwing over the bridge of boats, was extremely useful to us in embarking the troops, but in spite of all his assiduity the bridge was not completely fixed till this day. The Chief of Brigade of Engineers Lagastine, having constructed on the left bank of the Rhine, from Gileb to Finwen, large and well-disposed works, the artillery placed in these works, under the command of the General of Brigade Belle, kept up a very warm fire and seconded our attack perfectly well. The troops have displayed an intrepidity which shews that nothing is impossible. We found in the city of Duffeldorf, 168 guns, and several other articles, the list of which shall be transmitted to you as soon as I receive it. I cannot as yet positively state our loss, but it does not amount to 200 men killed and wounded. Several soldiers of every rank, whose names are not yet come to my notice, distinguished themselves by high exploits. As soon as the particulars of these shall reach me, I shall transmit them to you. We shall endeavour to take advantage of this victory, by forcing the enemy to make without delay a peace advantageous to the republic, and which will allow us to enjoy the advantages held out to us by the republican constitution the convention has just presented for the acceptance of the French nation. Health and fraternity.

JOURDAN.

## DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

THE twenty-five thousand troops which are now under orders for the West Indies, are not more than sufficient for the great purposes for which they are intended. Sir Ralph Abercrombie is to reside at Martinique, and have the conduct of the affairs of the Windward Islands, and also to undertake the recapture of Guadaloupe and St. Lucie; the conquest of St. Domingo will belong to a separate command, wholly distinct from that of Sir R. Abercrombie's. A much larger force must now be apportioned to the latter service than was at first thought of; for it may be depended on as a fact, that our court is decided not to permit the Spaniards to fulfil that part of the late treaty with the French, which stipulates to retain their portion of St. Domingo, until the French are in a situation to take possession of it. The Spaniards having stipulated to cede their interest in the island to the French, it naturally follows, according to every principle of the law of nations, that at

the expiration of the term fixed on for the cession it becomes an enemy's country, which we have a most undoubted right to attack.

According to authentic letters from Vannes, written by gentlemen who were made prisoners at Quiberon, it seems certain, that the slaughter of those unfortunate men has not been so general as was at first announced in the Paris papers. The unfortunate Sombreuil and thirteen or fourteen of his principal officers, with the Bishop of Dol and about the same number of priests, are the only prisoners who have been shot; and these murders were committed pursuant to the special orders given by Tallien before he set out for Paris. But these assassinations made so strong an impression on the inhabitants of Vannes, that the convention did not dare to shoot any more.

It is certain that M. de Puisfaye, with four or five other officers, have re-entered Morbihan, and conveyed succours to the Chouans. As he has to atone for many faults,



faults, some great effort may be expected from him.

Some dispatches have been received by the Adventure man of war, Capt. Crawley, from Lord Dorchester at Quebec. All was well in Upper and Lower Canada the latter end of July last; trade was pretty brisk; the inhabitants on the Lakes were well pleased with the final settlement of differences with America by treaty, and had celebrated that event with much festivity.

A circumstance, to which is attached a question of infinite magnitude to naval and military men, lately occurred in the Mediterranean. An officer of the 11th regiment, detached with a party of men to do duty as marines on-board one of the ships in Admiral Hotham's fleet, having been guilty of disobedience of orders, and contemptuous conduct towards the captain of the ship, was by him, as his superior officer, brought to a court-martial, at which Admiral Goodall presided. The charges being fully proved, he was sentenced to be dismissed the service, and rendered incapable of ever serving his majesty again. He however denied the legality of their proceedings, alledging a naval court to be incompetent to decide what he deemed a military cause; and in consequence wrote to General Briggs, commander in chief at Gibraltar, who, disregarding the judgment of the court-martial, ordered him to do his duty until he had his majesty's directions to the contrary. The affair is now before the war-office, and we trust will be terminated without creating any differences between the two professions.

The following anecdote of Captain Moore, of the Syren frigate, is transmitted to us by a gentleman on-board that vessel; we feel a national pride in giving it to the world:—During a recent cruise off the coast of France, Captain Moore fell in with some small fishing vessels, who, on his approach, abandoned their nets, and effected their escape to shore; being in want of fresh provisions, he ordered out his boats, and drew the nets, by which means he obtained a considerable quantity of fish. With due consideration, however, to the wretched poissards whom he had thus deprived of the hire of their labour, he ascertained the value of the fish, which proved, on the testimony of the pilot, to be six guineas; and this sum, together with an appropriate letter, he put into a bladder, and suspended it to the nets, which he again threw into the water, and set sail. The frightened fishermen from the shore witnessed the early part of the transaction, and on the departure of the frigate

returned to their station for the purpose of saving the remnant of their nets, which, according to common usage, they expected to have found hacked to pieces. How great must have been their gratitude and delight when, on drawing in their nets, they not only discovered them whole, but the treasure attached to them! It is thus we should ever act. We war not against individuals, whom, in all the relative duties of life, we should consider as friends and brethren.

Mr. Lambert, an eminent sugar-refiner, who has established a considerable sugar-house at Calcutta, writes to a friend in London, that the climate and soil of Bengal are so congenial to the propagation of the sugar-cane, and the habits of life of the natives of that country so widely different from those of the West-India planters, that they are able to supply even the West-India islands with sugar, at half the price it costs in its cultivation there. The prime cost of sugar in the West Indies is generally estimated at 35s. per cwt. In the East Indies, where the land is cultivated by labourers, who work for hire, and where slavery is unknown, it costs the farmer, upon an average, 4s. 10d. per cwt. A quantity of sugar, sufficient for the supply of all Europe, may be raised in Bengal; and, if an article in such unusual demand can be afforded cheap, it will enable the public to bear their other burdens with greater ease.

On Friday morning, July the 24th, came on at the assizes for the county of York, before Sir Soulden Lawrence and Sir Giles Rooke and a special jury, the trial of Mr. York, alias Redhead. At the last assizes two bills of indictment were found against him; one for a conspiracy in concert with Mr. Gales, and Richard Davidson; and the other for seditious words spoken, and a libel printed, intitled, "Proceedings of a Meeting on Castle-hill, Sheffield, April 7, 1794." Mr. York was only tried on the latter indictment for sedition. Mr. Law, for the crown, opened the proceedings. Mr. York was in high spirits, and, after Mr. Broomhead and several others were examined, made a very able, learned, and pathetic, speech of two hours, wherein he endeavoured to confute every charge brought against him, and called a number of witnesses on his part. These witnesses were examined by his assistant counsel, as he pleaded his own cause. At twelve at night, the judge finished summing up the evidence, and the jury, after a short consultation, found the prisoner guilty. When the verdict was delivered, some one clapped hands, which was immediately followed with a general hiss.

The

The trial lasted from nine o'clock in the morning till eleven at night. Sentence will be given in the court of King's Bench in the course of this term.


A terrible fire has just reduced to ashes the church of St. Nicholas, at Potsdam, together with the surrounding houses towards which the wind directed the flames. The fire broke out in the tower, the repair of which was completing, through the negligence of a workman who was melting lead. The flames, fed by a high wind, consumed in the space of an hour this very lofty tower, the fall of which communicated the fire to the church and the adjacent houses. The atmosphere being inflamed by this immense mass of fire, it became very difficult and hazardous to make any efforts to extinguish the flames. His majesty directed the operations in person. At eleven at night the fire was still burning, and there remained nothing of the beautiful church except the masonry and façade.

The church of St. Paul, Covent-garden, the architectural triumph of Inigo Jones, and the admiration of Europe, through the carelessness of some workmen, employed in finishing the interior of the new cupola, was, on Thursday afternoon the 17th of September, reduced to ashes. A kettle of pitch had boiled over, and the wooden elevation was consumed in a moment. Between two and three o'clock a column of fire was seen to burst forth from the cupola, which soon communicated with the roof, the timber-work of which was very complex; the flames with inconceivable rapidity communicated to the body of the building, and the lead upon the roof poured off in a flood with the velocity of a cataract. Soon after three o'clock, the beams which sustained the immense roof of the church began to fall in, not at once, but deliberately: all attempts to check the flames were deemed in vain, therefore every effort was directed towards the neighbouring buildings, which were with great difficulty preserved from taking fire, so intense was the heat from the church, which was now wrapt in an immense pyramid of flame, rising to three times the height of the building: the heat was felt to the end of Ruffel-street, and was scarcely to be supported so near as within fifty yards of it. At this moment, upon the architrave of the slender arch leading to the church-yard on the left, two firemen were supporting a pipe, which was playing upon the building, with an intrepidity, which, if it were not professional, we should term holy. By six o'clock the whole interior was in ruins. The com-

munion plate, we believe was saved; but every other article pertaining to the sacred edifice, including the valuable and celebrated organ, the clock, &c. &c. was devoured by the unconquerable fury of the destructive element. The outer walls yet stand, as also the pillars and pediment of the noble portico fronting Covent-garden, but the whole appear so damaged, that it is supposed impossible they can be repaired on the original plan of the architect. The church had lately experienced a very expensive renovation of all its parts; it had also been decorated within side in a style of uncommon magnificence. They, who are judges of architecture, know that it was the model of structures at once elegant and simple; surprising with unexpected grandeur beneath a roof as artless as that of a cottage. —The roof of this church was allowed to be a master-piece of architecture, it being entirely unsupported by any cross beams. The building had stood from the days of Charles the Second. When the then Earl of Bedford sent for Inigo Jones, he told him he wanted a chapel for the parishioners of Covent-garden, but added, he would not go to any considerable expence. In short, said he, I would not have it much better than a barn: "Well! then (replied Jones), you shall have the handsomest barn in Europe!" and he kept his word.

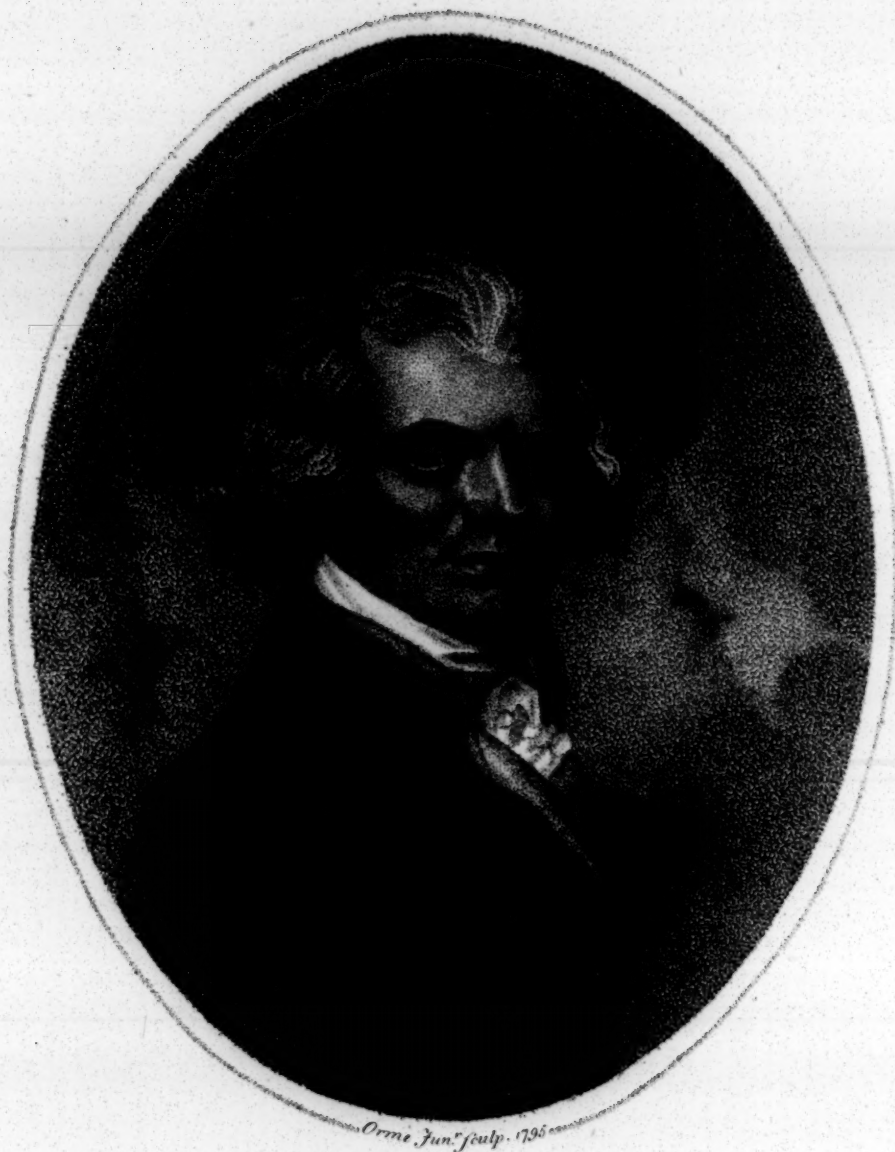
A proclamation is issued for the parliament to meet on the 29th of October next, for the dispatch of business. It is very generally believed that after passing a further vote of credit the parliament will be dissolved.

Monday the 31st of August, died Mr. Philidor, the celebrated chess-player. To the last moment of his life, he enjoyed, though near eighty years of age, a strong retentive memory, which rendered him remarkable in the circle of his acquaintance in the capital. He was member of the celebrated chess club near thirty years, and displayed those meek qualities, that rendered him not less esteemed as a companion, than admired for his extraordinary skill in the difficult game of chess, for which he was pre-eminently distinguished. Within these two months he played two games, blind-fold, at the same time, against two excellent chess-players, and was declared the victor. He was besides an admirable musician, and a capital composer.

 A Southampton Correspondent's request will be complied with, provided he will transmit a copy of the Warrant.







COMMODORE PAYNE.

*Published as the Act directs Oct'r 1795.*



## ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE OF COMMODORE PAYNE.

THE very distinguished officer, of whom the annexed engraving is a striking resemblance, (and which was taken from Mr. Orme's magnificent picture, now painting, of the landing of her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales at Greenwich,) studied the early elements of his profession at the Royal Academy at Portsmouth, and first embarked on the theatre on which he has since appeared with so much reputation under the orders of Lord Ducie, and sailed with him to the Leeward Islands, where he was taken on-board the *Montague* by Admiral Man; and served in the flag-ship under that commander during his continuance on that station.

On the breaking out of the American war, he went, on-board the *Bristol*, Sir Peter Parker, on the expedition to Carolina; and, on the arrival of Lord Howe in America in 1776, was immediately taken by his lordship on-board the *Eagle*, where under the immediate eye of this distinguished judge of merit, and in the American school, remarkable for having sent forth into the world some of the most accomplished officers in the profession, he very soon gave such decisive proofs of his professional abilities, as conciliated the approbation and favour of his noble patron, who appointed him lieutenant of the *La Brune*. During Lord Howe's continuance on the American station, he was afterwards appointed lieutenant of the *Phœnix*, commanded by Sir H. Parker, and was in this capacity on-board of that ship on that remarkable occasion, on which his lordship exhibited one of the most celebrated examples of the perfection to which naval tactics can be carried, that can be produced in history.

On Lord Howe's quitting America, Mr. Payne was appointed lieutenant on-board the *Roebuck*, commanded by Sir Andrew Snape Hammond, the present very able comptroller of the navy, and with him returned to England; where he was made first lieute-

nant of the *Romney*, Commodore Johnson, who hoisted a broad pendant as commander in chief of the squadron destined to Portugal; and very shortly promoted him to the command of the *Cormorant* sloop of war. On the capture of the *Artois* of forty guns, Captain Payne was made poet into her; and it was during his command of this ship, that an occasion arose in the Tagus, on which, thinking the British flag insulted by the court of Portugal, he supported it with a spirit and dignity which were honoured by his majesty's approbation.

On his return to England in the *Artois*, Captain Payne received a commission to command the frigate, in which, both in Europe and various parts of America, he displayed that diligence and activity which have ever marked his conduct; he recommended himself particularly to his commanding officer, Admiral Pigot, by attacking some ships in harbour, under the protection of a battery, in the island of Cuba, and, after landing, destroying some, and bringing away the remainder of them, he was soon after honoured by the admiral with the command of the *Leander* of fifty guns. How deservedly this was conferred, very soon appeared by one of the most distinguished actions in the whole war which he maintained against the French ship *Pluto* of seventy-four guns, and which ship, after a severe conflict, he obliged to abandon the field of battle; but was unable to follow her, from the perfectly disabled state of his own ship. Admiral Pigot's letter to the admiralty is a sufficient testimonial of Capt. Payne's merit on this occasion.

After this engagement he was named to the command of the *Princess Amelia* of eighty guns, which he brought to England soon after, at the conclusion of the war.—The "piping time of peace" did not however suffer Captain Payne's talents to lie unemployed, or himself to live undistinguished. His agreeable manners, as

well as his professional character, soon recommended him to the favour and patronage of the illustrious heir to the British throne; who not only honoured him with his particular favour and confidence, but appointed him his principal secretary, and privy seal, and auditor of the duchy of Cornwall, and still continues that friendship to him, which stands among others a valuable example, of the discernment as well as the goodness of his royal highness's heart.

Captain Payne was shortly after elected one of the representatives in parliament for the borough of Huntingdon; and, at the general election of the present parliament, was re-elected for the same borough.

On the breaking out of the present war, Captain Payne was appointed to the command of the *Russell* of seventy-four guns; his conduct in which ship, on the ever-memorable 1st of June, is too recently distinguished in Lord Howe's official dispatches on that occasion to render any panegyric on him necessary.

When the Prince of Wales's marriage with the Princess of Brunswick was so far advanced, as to render it necessary to prepare for the conveyance of her serene highness to England, his royal highness's eyes naturally adverted for her conductor to the naval officer, who, in addition to his professional reputation, enjoyed his own private confidence and friendship; and Captain Payne accordingly received orders from the admiralty to leave the *Russell* at Torbay, and to hoist a broad pendant on-board the Princess Augusta yacht, then in the river, fitting out for this purpose. It being however in consideration of the season of the year, and the danger of the times, thought expedient that her serene highness should embark on-board of a ship of more force and security, the broad pendant was shifted to his majesty's ship *Jupiter* of fifty guns, and Captain Payne in December last received the commission of commodore and commander in chief of the squadron to be employed upon this service. The uncommon severity of the last winter, and the dangers and difficulties which this squadron

experienced in its repeated attempts to leave the Nore, (where from the hard gales of easterly wind, impenetrable fogs, and floating islands of ice, its station at anchor, and much more its navigation, became perilous and alarming to the last degree,) are too recent in the recollection of every one. At this disastrous crisis, the weather which prevented the squadron from putting to sea enabled the French to over-run Holland, where it was originally designed that the commodore should receive the Princess of Brunswick, and obliged his majesty's ministers to decide on some remote part for her serene highness's embarkation, and to postpone it till an improvement of the weather should render the voyage less hazardous. Government however did not suffer this squadron to be idle: for no sooner was this further delay of the princess's embarkation determined on, than the commodore was sent for by the cabinet; and, after a stay of very few hours in town, proceeded immediately into the North Sea, (leaving behind him the royal yachts, which were fitted out for the princess's ladies and women of the bed-chamber,) on an expedition, which required the most inviolable secrecy, and discreetest conduct, as well as the most determined intrepidity. The rapid progress however of the carmaguols over Holland, and the complete possession which they gained of the navy, docks, harbours, and every part of the republic, so soon defeated every hope of striking any material blow in that quarter, that the commodore was recalled before even an attempt could be made at success. The rigour of the season beginning to relax in the commencement of the month of March, the squadron took its first departure from the Nore with the yachts in order to proceed to Cruikshaven, where his majesty had destined that the princess should embark aboard the *Jupiter*.

The great risks, and continual distresses, to which the squadron was exposed from the ice, in its passage to Cruikshaven, and during the time that it was at anchor at port, in expectation of the Princess of Brunswick, are scarcely



scarcely to be paralleled in so short a navigation. But the issue was most happy. After arranging with Lord Malmesbury (his majesty's ambassador appointed to attend the princess from Brunswick) all the necessary preliminaries to her serene highness's embarkation, the commodore had the honour of receiving her serene highness in his barge, and conducting her on-board the Jupiter, and, setting sail the next morning, after a pleasant passage of five days, arrived at Gravesend on the 4th of April. The next morning the commodore shifted his broad pendant to the Princess Augusta yacht, on-board of which he conducted the Princess of Brunswick, and had the happiness in a few hours of landing her serene highness at Greenwich, without the occurrence of the smallest accident, or unpleasant circumstance, from the hour of her embarkation.

The considerable and important share which the commodore had the honour of contributing in the conduct

and accomplishment of an event, of a nature so interesting to the happiness of the nation, must be a subject of no small satisfaction to his own feelings, in the subsequent part of his life, and entitles him to no less approbation from his fellow-subjects than he has had the honour of receiving from his sovereign. We have only to lament our intelligence that his health has been so materially impaired by the unremitting fatigues and anxieties of his commission during the last winter, as to occasion a necessary suspension of his public services, and sincerely to wish him a happy re-establishment, and resumption of the duties of his profession.

Commodore Payne is the cadet of a very late honourable stock, and brother to the late Sir Ralph Payne, now Lord Lavington.

*\* \* We shall be happy in the future correspondence of the gentleman who favoured us with the above Anecdotes, whose former communications we also thankfully acknowledge.*

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 208.

**A**LTHOUGH the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana in North America, to the Straits of Magellan in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for, though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most consider-proprietor of America was Great Britain. The French indeed, until the conclusion of the war before last, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana; comprehending all that extensive inland country reaching from Hudson's Bay

on the north, to Mexico and the gulph of the same name on the south. But in that war, to which their perfidy and ambition gave rise, they were not only driven from Canada and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana lying on the east side of the Mississippi. And thus our own colonies were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of our empire in North America. To the northward we might have extended our claims quite to the pole itself, nor did any nation seem inclined to dispute the property of this northernmost country with us. From that extremity we had a territory extending southward to Cape Florida in the Gulph of Mexico, N. lat. 25°, and consequently near four thousand miles long in a direct line. And to the westward our boundaries reached to nations unknown even to the Indians of Canada.

Of the revolution that has since taken place, by which a great part of those territories have been torn from the British empire, the history will now follow in its proper order.

The state of the British colonies at the conclusion of the war in 1763, was such as attracted the attention of all the politicians in Europe. Their flourishing condition at that period was remarkable and striking: their trade had prospered in the midst of all the difficulties and distresses of a war in which they were so nearly and so immediately concerned. Their population continued on the increase, notwithstanding the ravages and depredations that had been so fiercely carried on by the French, and the native Indians in their alliance. They abounded with spirited and active individuals of all denominations. They were flushed with the uncommon prosperity that had attended them in their commercial affairs and military transactions. Hence they were ready for all kind of undertakings, and saw no limits to their hopes and expectations.

As they entertained the highest opinion of their value and importance, and of the immense benefit that Britain derived from its connection with them, their notions were adequately high in their own favour. They deemed themselves, not without reason, intitled to every kindness and indulgence which the mother-country could bestow.

Although their pretensions did not amount to a perfect equality of advantages and privileges in matters of commerce, yet in those of government they thought themselves fully competent to the task of conducting their domestic concerns with little or no interference from abroad. Though willing to admit the supremacy of Great Britain, they viewed it with a suspicious eye, and with a marked desire and intent speedily to give it limitations. Their improvements in all the necessary and useful arts did honour to their industry and ingenuity. Though they did not live in the luxury of Europe, they had all the solid and substantial enjoyments of life, and were not unacquainted with many of

its elegancies and refinements. A circumstance much to their praise is, that, notwithstanding their peculiar addiction to those occupations of which lucre is the sole object, they were duly attentive to cultivate the field of learning; and they have ever since their first foundation been particularly careful to provide for the education of the rising progeny.

Their vast augmentation of internal trade and external commerce, was not merely owing to their position and facility of communication with other parts; it arose also from their natural turn and temper, full of schemes and projects; ever aiming at new discoveries, and continually employed in the search of means of improving their condition. Their industry carried them into every quarter from whence profit could be derived. There was scarcely any port of the American hemisphere to which they had not extended their navigation. They were continually exploring new sources of trade, and were found in every spot where business could be transacted.

To this extensive and incessant application to commerce, they added an equal vigilance in the administration of their affairs at home. Whatever could conduce the amelioration of the soil they possessed, to the progress of agriculture, or to the improvement of their domestic circumstances, was attended to with so much labour and care, that it may be strictly said, that Nature had given them nothing of which they did not make the most. In the midst of this solicitude and toil in matters of business, the affairs of government were conducted with a steadiness, prudence, and lenity, seldom experienced, and never exceeded, in the best regulated countries of Europe.

Such was the situation of the British colonies in general throughout North America, and of the New England provinces in particular, when the pacification above-mentioned opened one of the most remarkable scenes that ever commanded the attention of the world.

The French, who have for many ages been the professed and natural enemies



enemies of Britain, had long viewed, with equal envy and apprehension, the flourishing state of those colonies she had founded in North America. No doubt at present subsists, that they began immediately after the peace of Paris to carry into execution the scheme they had formed for the separation of the British colonies from the mother-country. Conscious that, whilst a good understanding lasted between them, the superiority must henceforth remain for ever on the side of Britain, it was only by their disunion that France could hope to regain the station and consequence she had formerly possessed in Europe.

The first steps she took were to employ her secret emissaries in spreading dissatisfaction among the British colonists; and the effects produced by her machinations were precisely such as they had intended and expected. The disposition of the inhabitants of North America began gradually to alter from that warmth of attachment to the mother-country which had so peculiarly characterised them. They began to view her rather in the light of a sovereign than of a parent; and to examine, with a scrupulous nicety, the nature of those ties that rendered them parts of her empire.

In March 1764, a bill was passed, by which heavy duties were laid on goods imported by the colonists from such West-India islands as did not belong to Great Britain; at the same time that these duties were to be paid into the exchequer in specie: and in the same session, another bill was framed to restrain the currency of paper-money in the colonies themselves. These acts, coming so close upon each other, threw the whole continent into the utmost ferment. Vehement remonstrances were made to the ministry, and every argument made use of that reason or ingenuity could suggest, but to no purpose. Their reasoning, however, convinced a great number of people at home; and thus the American cause came to be considered as the cause of liberty.

The Americans, finding all argument vain, at last united in an agreement to import no more of the manufactures of Great Britain, but to

encourage to the utmost of their power every thing of that kind among themselves. Thus the British manufacturers also became a party against ministry, and did not fail to express their resentment in the strongest terms; but the ministry were not to be so easily daunted, and therefore proceeded to the last step of their intended plan, which was to lay on stamp duties throughout the continent. Previous to this, indeed, several regulations were passed in favour of the commerce of the colonies; but they had now imbibed such unfavourable sentiments of the British ministry, that they paid very little regard to any thing pretended to be done in their favour; or, if these acts made any favourable impression, it was quickly obliterated by the news of the stamp-act. The reason given for this act so exceedingly obnoxious was, that a sum might be raised sufficient for the defence of the colonies against a foreign enemy; but this pretence was so far from giving any satisfaction to the Americans, that it excited their indignation to the utmost degree. They not only asserted that they were abundantly able to defend themselves against any foreign enemy, but denied that the British parliament had any right to tax them at all. Indeed it met with a violent opposition in the English house of commons. When it was brought in, Mr. Charles Townshend concluded a long speech in its favour, with words to the following effect: "And now, will these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished up by our indulgence, till they are grown to a degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?" To which Colonel Barré replied, "They planted by your care! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from tyranny to a then uncultivated and inhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable; and among others to the cruelty of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me

me to say, the most formidable, of any people upon the face of God's earth; and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all hardships with pleasure, compared with those who suffered in their own country, from the hands of those who should have been their friends.—They nourished up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions and to prey upon them.—Men whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them.—Men promoted to the highest seats of justice, some, who to my knowledge were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own.—They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted a valour amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all its little savings to your emolument; and believe me, remember I this day told you so, that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, will accompany them still: but prudence forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows, I do not at this time speak from any motives of party heat; what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart. However superior to me in general knowledge and experience the respectable body of this house may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you, having seen and been conversant in that country. The people I believe are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has, but a people jealous of their liberties, and who will vindicate them, if ever they should be violated: but the subject is too delicate—I will say no more."

It would be superfluous to enter into any arguments used by the con-

tending parties on this important occasion. It was evident that the matter was not to be decided by argument, but by force of arms; and the British ministry, too confident of the authority and power of this country, determined to carry on matters with an high hand, to terrify the colonists into an implicit subjection, or, if that would not do, to compel them to it by force. The stamp-act being finally passed, its reception in America was such as might have been expected. The news, and the act itself, first arrived at Boston, where the bells were muffled and rung a funeral peal. The act was first hawked about the streets with a Death's head affixed to it, and styled the "Folly of England, and the ruin of America;" and afterwards publicly burnt by the enraged populace:—the stamps themselves were seized and destroyed, unless brought by men of war, or kept in fortified places; those who were to receive the stamp-duties were compelled to resign their offices; and such of the Americans as sided with government on this occasion had their houses plundered and burnt.

Though these outrages were committed by the lowest of the multitude, they were at first connived at by those of superior rank, and the principles on which they were founded afterwards openly patronized by them; and the doctrine became general and openly avowed, that Britain had no right whatever to tax the colonies without their own consent.

It was now found absolutely necessary either to yield to the Americans, by repealing the obnoxious statutes, or to enforce them by arms. The ferment had diffused itself universally throughout the colonies. Virginia first, and after that all the rest of the provinces, declared against the right of Britain to lay on taxes in America; and that every attempt to vest others with this power besides the king, or the governor of the province and his general assembly, was illegal, unconstitutional, and unjust. Non-importation agreements were every where entered into; and it was even resolved to prevent the sale of any more British goods after the present year. Ame-  
rican



ican manufactures, though dearer, as well as inferior in quality to the British, were universally preferred. An association was entered into against eating of lamb, in order to promote the growth of wool; and the ladies with cheerfulness agreed to renounce the use of every species of ornament manufactured in Britain. Such a general and alarming confederacy determined the ministry to repeal some of the most obnoxious statutes; and to this they were the more inclined by a petition from the first American congress, held at New York in the beginning of October 1765.

The stamp-act was therefore repealed, to the universal joy of the Americans, and indeed to the general satisfaction of the English, whose manufactures had begun to suffer very severely in consequence of the American association against them. The disputes on the subject without doors, however, were by no means silenced, but each party continued to argue the case as violently as ever. The celebrated Dr. Benjamin Franklin was on this occasion examined before the house of commons; and his opinion was in substance as follows:

“That the tax in question was impracticable and ruinous. The very attempt had so far alienated the affection of the colonies, that they behaved in a less friendly manner towards the natives of England than before; considering the whole nation as conspiring against their liberty, and the parliament as willing rather to oppress than to support and assist them. America, in fact, did not stand in any need of British manufactures, having already begun to construct such as might be deemed absolutely necessary, and that with such success, as left no doubt of their arriving in a short time at perfection. The elegancies of dress had already been renounced for manufactures of the American kind, though much inferior; and the bulk of the people, consisting of farmers, were such as could in no way be affected by the want of British commodities, as having every necessary within themselves. Materials of all kinds were to be had in plenty: the wool was fine; flax

grew in great abundance, and iron was every where to be met with.”

The doctor also insisted, “That the Americans had been greatly misrepresented; that they had been traced as void of gratitude and affection to the parent state; than which nothing could be more contrary to truth. In the war of 1755 they had, at their own expence, raised an army of twenty-five thousand men; and in that of 1739, they assisted the British expeditions against South America with several thousand men, and had made many brave exertions against the French in North America. It was said, that the war of 1755 had been undertaken in defence of the colonies; but the truth was, that it originated from a contest about the limits between Canada and Nova Scotia, and in defence of the English rights to trade on the Ohio. The Americans, however, would still continue to act with their usual fidelity; and, were any war to break out in which they had no concern, would shew themselves as ready as ever to assist the parent state to the utmost of their power, and would never fail to manifest their readiness in contributing to the emergencies of government, when called to do so in a regular and constitutional manner.”

The ministry were conscious, that, in repealing this obnoxious act, they yielded to the Americans; and therefore, to support, as they thought, the dignity of Great Britain, it was judged proper to publish a declaratory bill, setting forth the authority of the mother-country over her colonies, and her power to bind them by laws and statutes in all cases whatever. This much diminished the joy with which the repeal of the stamp-act was received in America. It was considered as a proper reason to enforce any claims equally prejudicial with the stamp-act, which might hereafter be set up; a spirit of jealousy pervaded the whole continent, and a strong party was formed, watchful on every occasion to guard against the supposed encroachments of the British power.

It was not long before an occasion offered, in which the Americans manifested

manifested a spirit of absolute independency; and that, instead of being bound by the British legislature in all cases, they would not be controlled by it in the most trivial affairs. The Rockingham ministry had passed an act, providing the troops stationed in different parts of the colonies with such accommodations as were necessary for them. The assembly of New York, however, took upon them to alter the mode of execution prescribed by the act of parliament, and to substitute one of their own. This gave very great offence to the new ministry, and rendered them, though composed of those who had been active against the stamp-bill, less favourable to the colonies than in all probability they would have otherwise been. An unlucky circumstance at the same time occurred, which threw every thing once more into confusion. One of the new ministry, Mr. Charles Townshend, having declared that he could find a way of taxing the Americans without giving them offence, was called upon to propose his plan. This was by imposing a duty upon tea, paper, painters colours, and glass, imported into America. The undutiful behaviour of the New York assembly, and that of Boston, which had proceeded in a similar manner, caused this bill to meet with less opposition than otherwise it might have done. As a punishment to the refractory assemblies, the legislative power was taken from that of New York, until it should fully comply with the terms of the act. That of Boston at last submitted with reluctance. The bill for the new taxes was quickly passed, and sent to America in 1768.

A ferment much greater than that occasioned by the stamp-act now took place throughout the continent. The populace renewed their outrages, and those of superior station entered into regular combinations against it. Circular letters were sent from Massachusetts's colony to all the rest, setting forth the injustice of the behaviour of the British legislature. Meetings were held in all the principal towns, in which it was proposed to lessen the consumption of foreign manufactures,

by giving proper encouragement to their own. Continual disputes ensued betwixt the governors and general assemblies of their provinces, which were much heightened by a letter from Lord Shelburn to Governor Barnard of Massachusetts's Bay, containing complaints of the people he governed. The assembly, exasperated to the highest degree, charged their governor with having misrepresented them to the court of Britain, required him to produce copies of the letters he had sent; and, on his refusal, wrote letters to the English ministry, accusing him of misrepresentation and partiality, complaining at the same time most grievously of the proceedings of parliament, as utterly subversive of the liberties of America, and the rights of British subjects.

The governor, at a loss how to defend himself, prorogued the assembly; and, in his speech on the occasion, gave a loose to his resentment, accusing the members of ambitious designs, incompatible with those of dutiful and loyal subjects. To counteract the circular letter of the province of Massachusetts's Bay, Lord Hillsborough, secretary for the American department, sent another to the governors of the different colonies, reprobating the other as full of misrepresentation, and tending to excite a rebellion against the authority of the parent state.

Matters now hastened to a crisis. The governor had been ordered to proceed with vigour, and by no means to shew any disposition to yield to the people as formerly. In particular, they were required to rescind that resolution by which they had written the circular letter above-mentioned; and, in case of a refusal, it was told them that they would be dissolved. As this letter had been framed by the resolution of a former house, they desired, after a week's consultation, that a recess might be granted to consult with their constituents; but this being refused, they came to a determination, ninety-two against seventeen, to adhere to the resolution which produced the circular letter. At the same time a letter was sent to

Lord



Lord Hillsborough, and a message to the governor, in justification of their proceedings. In both, they expressed themselves with such freedom as was by no means calculated to accord with the sentiments of those in power. They insisted that they had a right to communicate their sentiments to their fellow-subjects upon matters of such importance; complained of the requisition to rescind the circular letter as unconstitutional and unjust; and particularly insisted, that they were represented as harbouring seditious designs, when they were doing nothing but what was lawful and right. At the same time, they condemned the late acts of parliament as highly oppressive, and subversive of liberty. The whole was concluded by a list of accusations against their governor, representing him as unfit to continue in his station, and petitioning the king for his removal from it.

These proceedings were followed by a violent tumult at Boston. A vessel belonging to a capital trader had been seized in consequence of his having neglected some of the new regulations; and, being taken under the protection of a man of war at that time lying in the harbour, the populace attacked the houses of the commissioners of excise, broke their windows, destroyed the collector's boats, and obliged the custom-house officers to take refuge in Castle William, situated at the entrance of the harbour.

The governor now took the last step in his power to put a stop to the violent proceedings of his assembly, by dissolving it entirely; but this was of little moment. Their behaviour had been highly approved by the other colonies, who had written letters to them expressive of their approbation. After the dissolution of the assembly, frequent meetings of the people were held in Boston, which ended in a remonstrance to the governor, to the same purpose as some of the former; but concluding with an extraordinary request, that he would take upon him to order the king's ships out of the harbour.

While the disposition of the Bostonians was going on from bad to worse,

news arrived that the agent for the colony had not been allowed to deliver their petition to the king; it having been objected, that the assembly without the governor was not sufficient authority. This did not contribute to allay the ferment; and it was further augmented by the news that a number of troops had been ordered to repair to Boston, to keep the inhabitants in awe.

A dreadful alarm now took place. The people called on the governor to convene a general assembly, in order to remove their fears of the military; who they said were to be assembled to overthrow their liberties, and force obedience to laws to which they were entirely averse. The governor replied, that it was no longer in his power to call an assembly; having, in his last instructions from England, been required to wait the king's orders, the matter being then under consideration at home. Being thus refused, the people took upon themselves the formation of an assembly, which they called a Convention. The proceedings and resolutions of this were conformable to their former behaviour; but now they went a step farther, and, under pretence of an approaching rupture with France, ordered the inhabitants to put themselves in a posture of defence against any sudden attack of an enemy; and circular letters were directed to all the towns in the province, acquainting them with the resolutions that had been taken in the capital, and exhorting them to proceed in the same manner. The town of Hatfield alone refused its concurrence; but this served only to expose them to the censure and contempt of the rest. The convention, however, thought proper to assure the governor of their pacific intentions, and renewed their request that an assembly might be called; but being refused any audience, and threatened with being treated as rebels, they at last thought proper to dissolve of themselves, and sent over to Britain a circumstantial account of their proceedings, with the reason of their having assembled in the manner already-mentioned.

The expected troops arrived on the

very day on which the convention broke up, and had some houses in the town fitted up for their reception. Their arrival had a considerable influence on the people, and for some time seemed to put an end to the disturbances; but the seeds of discord had now taken such deep root, that it was impossible to quench the flame. The late outrageous behaviour in Boston had given the greatest offence in England; and, notwithstanding all the efforts of opposition, an address from both houses of parliament was presented to the king; in which the audacious behaviour of the colony of Massachusetts's Bay was set forth in the most ample manner, and the most vigorous measures recommended for reducing them to obedience. The Americans, however, continued steadfast in the ideas they had adopted. Though the troops had for some time quieted the disturbances, yet the calm continued no longer than they appeared respectable on account of their number; but, as soon as this was diminished by the departure of a large detachment, the remainder was treated with contempt, and it was even resolved to expel them altogether. The country people took up arms for this purpose, and were to have assisted their friends in Boston; but, before the plot could be put in execution, an event happened which put an end to every idea of reconciliation betwixt the contending parties.

On the 5th of March 1770, a scuffle happened between some soldiers and a party of the town's people. The soldiers, while under arms, were pressed upon, insulted, and pelted, by a mob armed with clubs, sticks, and snowballs covering stones. They were also dared to fire. In this situation, one of the soldiers, who had received a blow, in resentment fired at the supposed aggressor. This was followed by a single discharge from six others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerously wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number, of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate

men, prevented the townsmen from falling on the soldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a most respectful manner, in order to express the indignation of the inhabitants at the slaughter of their brethren, by soldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Capt. Preston, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to gaol, and afterwards tried. The captain, and six of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of manslaughter. It appeared on the trial, that the soldiers were abused, insulted, threatened, and pelted, before they fired. It was also proved, that only seven guns were fired by the eight prisoners. These circumstances induced the jury to make a favourable verdict. The result of the trial reflected great honour on John Adams, and Josiah Quincy, Esqrs. the counsel for the prisoners; and also on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The consequences of this tragical event sunk deep in the minds of the people, and were made subservient to important purposes. The anniversary of it was observed with great solemnity for thirteen years. Eloquent orators were successively employed to deliver an annual oration to preserve the remembrance of it fresh in their minds. On these occasions the 'blessings of liberty—the horrors of slavery—the dangers of a standing army—the rights of the colonies, and a variety of such topics, were represented to the public view under their most pleasing and alarming forms. These annual orations administered fuel to the fire of liberty, and kept it burning with an incessant flame.

The determinations of the Americans now continued, if possible, more firm than ever, until at last government, determined to act with vigour, and at the same time to behave with as much condescension as possible, repealed all the duties lately laid on, that of tea alone excepted. This was left on purpose to maintain the dignity of the crown of Britain; and  
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it was thought that it could not be productive of any discontent in America, as being an affair of very little moment, the produce of which was not expected to exceed sixteen thousand pounds. The opposition, however, were strenuous in their endeavours to get this tax likewise abrogated; insisting, that the Americans would consider it only as an inlet to others; and that the repeal of all the rest, without this, would answer no good purpose. The event shewed that their opinion was well-founded. The Americans opposed the tea-tax with the same violence as they had done all the rest; and at last, on the news that salaries had been settled on the justices of the superior court of Boston, the governor was addressed on the subject; the measure was condemned in the strongest terms; and a committee selected out of the several districts of the colony appointed to inquire into it.

The new assembly proceeded in the most formal manner to disavow the supremacy of the British legislature; accused the parliament of Britain of having violated the natural rights of the Americans in a number of instances. Copies of the transactions of this assembly were transmitted to every town in Massachusetts, exhorting the inhabitants to rouse themselves, and exert every nerve in opposition to the iron hand of oppression, which was daily tearing the choicest fruits from the fair tree of liberty. The disturbances were also greatly heightened by an accidental discovery that Mr. Hutchison, governor of Massachusetts Bay, had written several confidential letters to people in power in England, complaining of the behaviour of the province, recommending vigorous measures against them, and, among other things, asserting, that "there must be an abridgment of what is called British liberty." Letters of this kind had some how or other fallen into the hands of the agent for the colony at London. They were immediately transmitted to Boston, where the assembly was sitting, by whom they were laid before the governor, who was thus reduced to a

very mortifying situation. Losing every idea of respect or friendship for him as their governor, they instantly dispatched a petition to the king, requesting him to remove the governor and deputy-governor from their places; but to this they not only received no favourable answer, but the petition itself was declared groundless and scandalous.

Matters were now ripe for the utmost extremities on the part of the Americans; and they were brought on in the following manner. Though the colonists had entered into a non-importation agreement against tea as well as all other commodities from Britain, it had nevertheless found its way into America, though in smaller quantities than before. This was sensibly felt by the East-India company, who had now agreed to pay a large sum annually to government; in recompence for which compliance, and to make up their losses in other respects, they were empowered to export their tea free from any duty payable in Britain; and, in consequence of this permission, several ships freighted with the commodity were sent to North America, and proper agents appointed for disposing of it. The Americans, now perceiving that the tax was thus likely to be enforced whether they would or not, determined to take every possible method to prevent the tea from being landed, as well knowing that it would be impossible to hinder the sale should the commodity once be brought on-shore. For this purpose the people assembled in great numbers, forcing those to whom the tea was consigned to resign their offices, and to promise solemnly never to resume them; and committees were appointed to examine the accounts of merchants, and make public tests, declaring such as would not take them enemies to their country. Nor was this behaviour confined to the colony of Massachusetts Bay; the rest of the provinces entered into the contest with the same warmth, and manifested the same resolution to oppose the mother-country.

In the midst of this confusion three ships laden with tea arrived at Boston; but so much were the captains alarmed

at the disposition which seemed to prevail among the people, that they offered, provided they could obtain the proper discharges from the tea-connexions, custom-house, and governor, to return to Britain without landing their cargoes. The parties concerned, however, though they durst not order the tea to be landed, refused to grant the discharges required. The ships, therefore, would have been obliged to remain in the harbour; but the people, apprehensive that if they remained there the tea would be landed in small quantities, and disposed of in spite of every endeavour to prevent it, resolved to destroy it at once. This resolution was executed with equal speed and secrecy. The very evening after the

above-mentioned discharges had been refused, a number of people dressed like Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships, and threw into the sea their whole cargoes, consisting of three hundred and forty-two chests of tea; after which they retired without making any further disturbance, or doing any more damage. No tea was destroyed in other places, though the same spirit was every where manifested. At Philadelphia the pilots were enjoined not to conduct the vessels up the river; and at New York, tho' the governor caused some tea to be landed under the protection of a man of war, he was obliged to deliver it up to the custody of the people, to prevent its being sold.

[To be continued.]

#### HISTORY OF THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

THE Netherlands, with that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was possessed by the Romans, who called it Gallia Belgica: but, upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, took possession of these provinces, as they passed through them in their way to France and Spain, and here erected several small governments, which were a kind of limited monarchies, whose sovereigns were styled dukes, counts, or lords. These provinces were seventeen in number, viz. four dukedoms; Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Gueldres: seven earldoms; Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namur, and Zutphen: five lordships; Friesland, Malines, Utrecht, Overysfal, and Groningen; beside Antwerp, which had the title of marquissate of the Roman empire. The people enjoyed great privileges under these princes, who were contented with preserving them, because the smallness of their dominions made their greatest strength consist in the affection of their subjects; but afterward, when all these provinces became subject to the house of Burgundy, which held large dominions elsewhere, the people were treated with less indulgence. From Bur-

gundy they passed to the house of Austria: Charles V. was the first prince of this house, and, as he was king of Spain, emperor of Germany, and duke of Burgundy, he had different interests from those of his predecessors; and, being engaged in a war with France, he brought foreign forces from his other dominions into the Netherlands, notwithstanding express laws to the contrary.

At length, the reformation gaining ground here, that prince published very rigorous edicts against those who separated from the Romish church; and Grotius affirms, that during his reign above a hundred thousand persons suffered death for their religion; but the number and courage of those who embraced the doctrines of the reformation, instead of being diminished by the horrors of persecution, daily increased, and sometimes the people rescued out of the hands of the officers those who were led to execution. Thus the Netherlands became extremely alienated from the house of Austria, and their discontents increased on Charles's abdicating his throne in favour of his son Philip II. This prince, who treated his Flemish subjects with much more austerity than his father had done, would admit only of the Popish religion;



religion; and a sanguinary persecution against the heretics, as they were called, was carried on with fresh rigour; a court, resembling that of the inquisition, was erected, and these cruelties were aggravated by insupportable taxes; but at the time when Philip left the Netherlands, he appointed the Prince of Orange governor over four of those provinces.

The house of Nassau, of which the Prince of Orange was a branch, derives its respective titles from the eleven counties of the principality of Nassau, in the imperial circle of the Upper Rhine.

These oppressions being exercised with the most tyrannical fury by Ferdinand of Toledo, duke of Alva, whom Philip had created governor, the Netherlands made a strong effort for their freedom, and William prince of Orange, in conjunction with his brother Count Louis of Nassau, undertook the defence of the inhabitants, in their noble struggles for religious and civil liberty. Accordingly, the states of Holland, in their own names, conferred the stadtholdership, a title equivalent to lieutenant, on the former, and several other towns and provinces declared for him. He first united them, in 1576, in one general association, under the title of "The Pacification of Ghent." But, this union being soon dissolved, the prince exerted himself to the utmost in forming a more durable alliance, which he happily accomplished in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the United Provinces, and became the basis and plan of their constitution. The Prince of Orange was afterward on the point of being nominated the sovereign of these countries, but was treacherously shot in 1584, by an assassin named Belthazar Gerhard, who had assumed the name of Francis Guyon. This man was supposed to have been hired to perpetrate the murder by the Spanish ministry, but no tortures could force a confession from him. The United Netherlands, however, continued to maintain, sword in hand, that liberty to which they had raised themselves: Queen

Elizabeth of England took them under her protection, and rendered them essential assistance. When the Earl of Leicester, the favourite of that queen, was sent over by her to the Netherlands, in the year 1585, the states appointed him governor and captain-general of the United Provinces, or in other words their stadtholder; but his haughty carriage, and unskilful manner of conducting the war, soon rendered him unpopular, and the next year he returned to England. The Dutch, being afterward better supported by the English, baffled all the attempts of the Spaniards, and their commerce arrived at such a pitch, that in 1602 their celebrated East-India company was established, and Spain, being both weakened and discouraged by the ill success of a tedious war, in 1609 agreed to an armistice for twelve years, and in the very first article of the treaty acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent state. During this truce the republic attained to a degree of power which it has never since exceeded. These signal successes were principally obtained by the able conduct of Prince Maurice of Nassau, the second son of the first stadtholder, and to the same dignity this prince was chosen when only twenty-one years of age. He conducted the affairs of the states, during twenty years, with great ability and success. The latter part of this prince's government was sullied by cruelty and ingratitude; for he procured the condemnation and death of the pensionary Barnevelt, to whose influence he owed his elevation. This man was sacrificed to his opinions, for he was an Armenian in religion, and a republican in politics; but his death caused the political principles for which he suffered to spread more widely. Those whose who opposed the stadtholder were afterward called "the Louvestein party," from De Witt, burgomaster of Dort, and five other members of the states general, being imprisoned in that castle for maintaining such sentiments.

In 1621 the war was again renewed, during which the stadtholder, Prince Frederic Henry, youngest son of the first

first William, who succeeded on the death of his half brother Prince Maurice, in 1625, greatly distinguished himself. This war was brought to a period in 1648, by the peace of Munster, or Westphalia, by which treaty Philip IV. king of Spain, renounced all claim to the United Netherlands.

Frederic was succeeded by his only son William, who was fourth stadtholder, being then twenty-one years of age. He appears to have been ambitious, as was his father.

In 1652 a war broke out between the United Provinces and England, which latter country was then brought under a republican form of government; this war was terminated two years after by a treaty, in which the states of Holland engaged for ever to exclude the house of Orange from the stadtholdership of their province.

In 1665 another war was kindled with England, at which time that country had regained its regal constitution: this war continued until the treaty of Breda. The states of Holland and West Friesland then passed an edict, by which they abolished the stadtholdership in their province. This was effected by the influence of the grand pensionary De Witt.

When France formed a design to seize on the Spanish Netherlands, the United Provinces entered into an alliance with the crowns of England and Sweden for the defence of those countries; by which France was, in 1668, compelled to agree to the peace of Aix la Chapelle; but soon took a severe revenge by breaking that alliance.

At that time Louis XIV. had attained to the height of his power: his arms had been every where successful, and the magnificence which he assumed exceeded every thing before displayed in Europe. Thus situated, he formed the design of still farther extending his possessions in the Netherlands by the conquest of the Seven United Provinces. All the great powers of Europe at that time looked with indifference on the growing greatness of the French monarch, who to secure the accomplishment of his design, averted the opposition

which he might otherwise have apprehended from England, by employing Henrietta, sister of Charles II. who had married the Duke of Orleans, in a secret negotiation; for which purpose she passed over from Flanders into England, accompanied by a captivating French lady, and was met at Canterbury by the king her brother, who was presently persuaded to enter into a private treaty with the French king, by which he engaged to assist him in the conquest of Holland, in consideration of becoming his pensioner, and being enabled to become an absolute monarch in his own kingdom. To fix this fickle monarch in the interest of Louis, the attendant Frenchwoman became the favourite mistress of Charles, and, ever after, employed the ascendancy she had over that dissipated and unprincipled king to render him entirely subservient to the views of the court of Versailles.

The entire conquest of the Seven Provinces seemed now inevitable, and hostilities were commenced without even a colourable pretext. William prince of Orange was then twenty-two years of age, and the exigencies of the times caused him to be chosen stadtholder; but he had no force capable of opposing to the well-trained armies which approached his country, the principal of which was commanded by Turenne and Condé, and animated by the presence of their sovereign.

The French passed the Rhine, without much opposition, in June 1672; the provinces of Utrecht, Overyslal, and Gueldres, surrendered, and deputies were sent from the republic to implore peace; but the terms insisted on were so humiliating and so oppressive as to drive the Hollanders to desperation, and they resolved to defend their country, their property, and their lives, to the last extremity. In the fury thus excited, the grand pensionary John de Witt and his brother Cornelius were cruelly butchered by the populace. To preserve the important city of Amsterdam, the banks which protect the country from the inroads of the sea were cut away, and the lower grounds



grounds were widely inundated. The Prince of Orange acted with the most noble patriotism, whilst his unwearied attention introduced discipline among his troops, and taught them to face their enemies with firmness: that great naval commander de Ruyter at the same time caused the fleet of the republic to triumph over the combined force of France and England. The stadtholdership was now declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and the prince found means to unite the emperor, the empire, and the King of Spain, in a league to support the Dutch against the King of France: the fortunes of Louis began to wane; and in the year 1678 the peace of Nimeguen was signed, and all the conquests which had been made in the republican provinces were restored, in consideration of a considerable sum of money being paid for the restitution.

This William was the fifth stadtholder and the third of that name: he married the Princess Mary, eldest daughter of James II. of England, and became King of England.

The peace concluded with France at Nimeguen was of no long continuance; for in 1688, the states supporting their stadtholder in his expedition to England, with a fleet and a large body of troops, France declared war against them, which continued till the peace of Ryswic in 1697. At length, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the Spanish provinces fell to the share of the house of Austria, and the republic became involved in a war respecting that succession, which continued till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

William died King of England and Stadtholder of the United Provinces in 1702. He appointed John William Friso, prince of Nassau Dietz, his sole heir, who was born 1687, and was drowned in crossing an arm of the sea at Mardyke 14th July 1711. Three months after his death his widow was delivered of a son, who was christened William, and afterward became stadtholder, but, on the death of William III. that office was laid aside, until, in 1722, the province of Guel-

dres elected John William their stadtholder, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the other provinces.

On the decease of the Emperor Charles VI. the Dutch assisted the Queen of Hungary against France, which drew on them the resentment of that power; and in 1747, the French, making an irruption into Dutch Flanders, the republic unanimously declared the above-mentioned John William, prince of Orange, stadtholder, captain-general, and admiral in chief; it also made those dignities hereditary in his family, and even in the female and collateral branches.

In the general war which broke out in Europe in 1756, the Dutch, by taking no part in the quarrel, were perhaps the greatest gainers, supplying the belligerent powers with naval and military stores; and, when the dispute between Great Britain and the American colonies rekindled the flames of war, the most essential assistance was procured both to America and France by means of the Dutch settlement at St. Eustatius, and of the freights brought by their ships. At length it was discovered by the capture of an American packet, that a treaty between the American states and the province of Holland was actually adjusted, and that Mr. Laurens, who had been just before president of the congress, was appointed to reside at Amsterdam in a public capacity. This occasioned the court of London first to cancel all treaties of commerce and alliance which then subsisted between that kingdom and the United States, and soon after, in December 1780, to issue a declaration of hostilities against the republic. The resentment of Great Britain proved extremely fatal to the possessions and wealth of the Dutch: the island of St. Eustatius, with a large fleet of valuable merchant-ships, fell an easy prey to a naval and military force under the command of Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan; several homeward-bound East-India ships, richly laden, were either taken by the English or destroyed. Negapatnam on the Coromandel coast, and their chief settlement

settlement on the island of Ceylon, were wrested from them: a fleet of merchant-ships bound to the Baltic, convoyed by a squadron of Dutch men of war, under the command of Admiral Zoutman, were obliged to return to the Texel, and one of the 74-gun ships sunk in a very sharp action which happened with a British squadron under the command of Admiral Hyde Parker, (who was afterward created a baronet.) Had Parker been supplied with only one more ship of the line, he would probably have captured most of the enemy's fleet.

In the mean time the Emperor of Germany, attentive to the improvement of his dominions in the Low Countries, and desirous of procuring for his subjects the advantages to be derived from the extension of their commerce, determined to oblige the the Dutch to allow a free navigation on the Scheld, which river, by the treaty of Munster, in the year 1648, they possessed exclusively. To procure this, a ship, bearing the imperial flag, proceeded down the Scheld from Antwerp, the captain of which was ordered not to submit to any detention or examination whatever from the ships belonging to the republic of the Seven United Provinces, or to make any declaration at the custom-houses belonging to the republic on that river, or to acknowledge them in any manner whatever. At the same time another vessel was ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheld to Antwerp. They were both stopped by the Dutch on their passage, which the emperor construed into a declaration of war on the part of the republic, although by the 14th article of the treaty of Munster, entered into with Philip IV. of Spain, it was stipulated that the Scheld should remain shut by their high mightinesses, and in consequence of which that river had remained ever since guarded by two forts, Lillo and Lieskenshock, assisted by guard-ships. An army of eighty thousand men was now assembling, and, some imperial troops with a train of artillery advancing toward Lillo, the governor ordered the sluices to be opened in November 1784, which laid a large extent of

circumjacent country under water. A war between the emperor and the republic seemed to be inevitable; but the interposition of the courts of Versailles and Berlin prevented that evil, and the emperor at length agreed to give up his claims, on receiving a very large sum of money from the Dutch, to indemnify him for the expences which had been incurred by his preparations for war.

William V. the seventh and present stadtholder, now in England, and residing at Hampton-Court, succeeded, on the death of his father in 1751, to that dignity, when only three years of age; the princess dowager, his mother, who was Princess Royal of England, (being the eldest daughter of George II.) was appointed governess and guardian to the young prince; the Prince of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle acted as captain-general and lord high admiral during the minority, which continued until the year 1766, when the prince, having attained to eighteen years of age, took upon himself the administration of public affairs. The year following he married the Princess Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina of Prussia.

The amiable manners and benign disposition of this prince procured him general esteem, whilst the absolute ascendancy which the Duke of Brunswick had acquired, during so long a minority, over the mind of a prince in whom gentleness and acquiescence were such prevalent qualities, caused him still to retain all his plenitude of power. It was not long however before the people began to complain that the most undisguised partiality was shewn to foreigners in the appointments to offices.

One of the chief favourites about the person of the Prince of Orange was Capellan Vander Marsh, who had been advanced from a low origin to the station of chamberlain, and ennobled. This man, having continual opportunities of conversing with the prince in private, represented to him the necessity he was under to interfere, by exerting that authority which the states had vested in him, and no longer to delegate it in so unqualified a manner. The prince acknowledged



ledged the propriety of the suggestion, and promised to act upon it; but, when instances were pointed out in which he might render himself highly popular by appointing certain persons to vacant offices, he found the restraints in which he had ever been accustomed to be held too strong to be broken. This led Capellan to desert the cause of his master, and to join the republican party. Soon after the Duke of Brunswick resigned his employments and quitted the country.

The republican or anti-stadtholderian party, which, as we have already seen, had subsisted in the provinces ever since the year 1647, or from the death of Maurice the second stadtholder, found, in the ministry of France, the most effectual support which intrigue and a lavish distribution of money could render. It has lately been divulged, that more than a million of money had been issued from the treasury of the court of Versailles to further the interests of this party. However secretly these practices might be carried on, they were not concealed from the courts of London and Berlin, who were no less strenuous to support the Orange party. Internal dissensions, thus fomented by foreign interference, rose to a destructive height; and each party imbibed the most rancorous spirit against the other, insomuch that it was thought to be no longer safe for the prince and princess, with their family, to reside at the Hague; they therefore, in September 1785, retired to Nimeguen. In this posture of affairs, the Princess of Orange, who possesses an elevated mind, great abilities, and an enterprising spirit, determined on a very bold and decisive measure, which was, to proceed, without the prince, and with only two or three attendants, to the Hague, to make the experiment how far her presence and address could be rendered serviceable to the cause of the prince her husband. As she was proceeding on her journey on the 28th of June 1787, she was stopped near Schoonhoven, by a commandant acting under the republican party, detained there during the succeeding

night, and absolutely restricted from proceeding any farther. This indignity determined her to return to Nimeguen; and a representation of the treatment she had received was immediately transmitted to the King of Prussia, her brother, who had succeeded the great Frederic on that throne. The king supported the cause of his sister with much warmth, but, the states of Holland not being disposed to make any concessions, the reigning Duke of Brunswick, nephew to the duke who had filled the high offices in Holland, was placed at the head of an army of Prussians, amounting to about eighteen thousand effective men, whom he led on the 13th of September into the province of Guelderland, for the express purpose of restoring the Prince of Orange to his appointments.

The judicious distribution of the troops, and the vigour of their operations, reflected the highest honour on the commander. A general panic seized the republican party: only the town of Gorcum, which was commanded by Capellan, sustained a bombardment of about an hour; the other places of strength opened their gates at the first summons. Even the strong city of Utrecht, in which were ten thousand men in arms, and whose fortifications had been greatly strengthened, instead of meeting with firmness the approach of the enemy, was deserted by the whole republican party, with all the precipitancy of desperation. These rapid successes of the duke, caused the Orange party to gain the ascendancy at the Hague: only the city of Amsterdam remained determined to resist to the utmost; relying upon the prodigious strength of the place, which both nature and art had contributed to render, as it had ever been supposed, impregnable; beside that the besiegers could not cut off the communication by sea. The duke, however, made his arrangements for attacking the city in various directions, leading on his choicest troops to the most important and most perilous assault in person. After a very obstinate conflict, some of the most important of the outworks were taken, which

which gave the besiegers a secure lodgment, and threatened the city with a destructive bombardment; the magistracy of Amsterdam then thought it high time to submit to terms.

All these astonishing exploits were achieved by the third of October, when the duke had entered the United Provinces no more than twenty days! By the stipulations which followed, every thing was obtained for the stadtholder which his warmest friends could desire. Thus terminated, with very little bloodshed, those civil commotions which threatened to overwhelm this populous country in confusion and ruin. The stadtholder returned to the Hague, accompanied with the princess and their children; all of whom were received with the loudest acclamations.

The constituted authority of the Seven United Provinces, form seven republics, or independent sovereign states, united together for their common defence in a close alliance; but on condition, that all shall enjoy their own respective laws, liberties, and privileges; which the French, by their late treaty, have pretended to guarantee unto them. As they are confederated and allied together, it is requisite that they should meet, in order to consult on the most proper method of promoting their common interest; but it being impossible for all the members of these several states to meet together, each particular state appoints some person to represent it; and the assembly of these representatives is called "The Assembly of the States General."

Not only each province, but the principal cities, send deputies to the states general, as do also the nobles. Thus the number of the representatives is very considerable, and all are maintained at the expence of their respective provinces; the deputies of Holland being allowed four florins a day, and those of the other states six. But whatever be the number of the deputies from each province, be they nobles or commoners, they have all together but one voice; and therefore in the assembly of the states general there are but seven

voices. Beside this, being properly the assembly of the representatives of the seven sovereignties which compose the states of the United Provinces, their power is limited, either expressly or tacitly, by this instruction: "Not to suffer the least wound to be given to the sovereignty of that province which deutes them."

The states general, however, not only make peace or war in their own name, but send and receive ambassadors and other public ministers. The commander in chief, and all other military officers, take an oath of fidelity to them; and, during a war, some of their members, or of the council of state, follow the army, sit in the council of war, and their consent is requisite previous to any thing of importance being undertaken. In time of war the states likewise grant licences and protections.

Thus the states general appear at first view to be the sovereigns of the country: but most of these deputies are appointed only for a few years, and, though they have the power of debating on the most important affairs that may tend to secure or promote the preservation and happiness of the state, yet they have not power to conclude any point of great consequence, without previously communicating it to their respective provinces, and receiving their express consent. This renders the resolutions of the republic so tedious and dilatory, as to tire the patience of those powers who have affairs to negotiate with the states; but, though this slow method of proceeding is attended with many inconveniences, it has some advantages: it affords leisure for caution and mature deliberation, and is sometimes an unexceptionable pretence for protracting business and waiting to see what events may turn up.

In the assembly of the states general, each province presides weekly in its turn, beginning with Guelderland, who had the precedency before the union; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen. He who is first named in the deputation of his province presides,



presides, and is from that called the "President of the Week." They sit throughout the whole year without adjournment, and their meetings are always held at the Hague.

The highest office in the country is that of stadtholder, for he is at the same time governor-general of the Seven United Provinces, captain-general, and grand-admiral; but his power is extremely limited. He swears to obey the states general, and can neither make peace nor war without their consent. He may come to their assembly to lay before them any business in which the public is concerned; but has not ordinarily a seat in it. He may pardon criminals condemned to suffer death, and has the right of choosing the magistrates of cities upon a double nomination of their respective senates, excepting only Amsterdam: with several other important privileges.

The title assumed by the states is that of "High and Mighty Lords," or "the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands;" and in public addresses they are styled "their High Mightinesses."

The council of state consists of twelve deputies of the several provinces, and their office is either triennial or during the pleasure of their principals. In this council the de-

puties of Holland have the greatest weight, that province being possessed of three votes, while none of the others have more than two, and some of them only one. The presidentship indeed is held alternately by the twelve members, each in their week. The title of this council is "Noble and Mighty Lords."

At the time of the late revolution, the government of the United Provinces had much degenerated from its original establishment. The people, who at first elected their burgo-masters, or provincial magistrates, were deprived of that important privilege; all vacancies being constantly filled up by the body of magistrates; and the people were convened merely to be informed on whom the choice had fallen. That security for personal freedom, which an Englishman now enjoys again by the *habeas corpus* act, is unknown in Holland; freedom of speech was also much restrained there. The phlegmatic disposition of the Dutch operated very destructively in all public proceedings; whilst narrow politics, and a want of true patriotism, had gradually reduced the consequence of this once respectable republic to a very low degree of estimation amongst the nations of Europe.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

BERTRAND AND ELIZA.

THE pipe was mute in the valleys, and the hills were no longer responsive to the vocal reed.—Three years had elapsed since the young and generous Bertrand was assassinated by Caled, near the castle of Erasmus;—his lance hung inverted on his tomb, and his honours were mingled with the dust of his fathers.

"O when shall my sufferings have an end, and the grief-worn frame return to its kindred clay?—Never shall thy lovely image be erased from my memory; thy virtues are engraven on my heart!"—It was the voice of the amiable Eliza, offering her evening orisons at the shrine of her beloved Bertrand.

Silence held her still domain throughout the fertile plains, save where the distant watch-dog marked the rural hamlet.—Cynthia had gained the summit of the azure throne,—and smiled in lucid majesty over the blue expanse.—All nature aided the solemnity!—A row of aged oaks led to a cluster of spreading firs, which discovered a marble sepulchre adorned with military trophies.—The beautiful Eliza, amiable in sorrows, and patient in affliction, graced the awful scene.—She was kneeling in a posture of adoration and prayer,—her sable garment hung loose in melancholy folds, and mingled with her auburn tresses; the round tear of af-

fiction

fiction stood in her languid eye, and the cypress groves reiterated the sighs of a broken heart.

In the midst of her orisons, Clifford (by whose command the assassination of Bertrand was perpetrated) appeared before the sorrowful Eliza.—Rage instantly kindled in her cheek, and reproaches burst from her lips:—"Darest thou, perfidious and prophane, approach this hallowed place?—Ye gods, where are your avenging bolts? Why sleeps the thunder when this wretch draws near?—Dost thou not fear the anger of almighty power? Or is thy heart more hard than adamant, leagued with demons of revenge to ward the stroke of justice?"

"Chide not, too lovely fair one, (replied the repentant Clifford;) it was love for thee that led me on to madness: I beheld a favoured rival in the happy Bertrand;—I considered life, without thee, as an ocean opposed to incessant tempests,—but with thee all that heaven could bestow, or I could wish.—I vainly thought one bar alone remained between me and my fancied joys:—in a rash moment I employed the cursed Caled to execute my fell design;—he obeyed, took his reward, and fled, since which time peace has been banished from the breast of Clifford, and soon must the cold hand of death bring him to an expiation of his crimes."

"And dost thou talk of love, abhorred assassin? thou who hast laid low the image of perfection—my Bertrand was the first, and shall be the last, my bleeding heart ever owned—Hear me, beloved shade! and witness for me all ye cherubs watching round his tomb, never shall Eliza taste of pleasure more till we again shall meet in fields of joy:—then shall the rays of endless peace and love dispel the earthly mists of pain and woe." Eliza again prostrated herself before the shrine, and Clifford, dejected, returned through the avenue to the castle.

Alwin, surnamed the Good, (who was then on the throne,) hearing of the sorrows of Eliza, resolved to undertake the cause of injured innocence, by offering a considerable re-

ward to the champion who would meet Clifford in single combat. The time of the approaching tournaments drew on apace; at length the day arrived, appointed for the cause of Eliza.—The circus was crowded with spectators. The king was seated beneath a canopy adorned with the riches of the east, and the constant fair one sat at his right hand:—every eye was centred on one object—the injured Eliza!—Clifford appeared in the lists,—and the trumpet was thrice sounded—a stranger instantly appeared, and accepted the challenge; his helmet of massy gold covered his face, it was studded with diamonds, and the nodding plumes shook defiance to his foe;—his armour, of exquisite workmanship, darted a splendid radiance throughout the circus, and the blood-red cross on his breast displayed a knight zealous in the Christian cause.—The dignity of his appearance, the symmetry of his shape, and the graceful manner with which he took up the glove, charmed every beholder.—Clifford, all trembling, approached and thus addressed the multitude:—"You see before you a wretch destined by the hand of fate to meet eternal vengeance:—fall I must, if not by the sword of my accuser, the weight of my own sins must soon bring me with sorrow to the grave."—The martial trumpets were again flourished, and the champions engaged.—For some time the victory was doubtful, till at length the powerful arm of the stranger laid the lofty Clifford in the dust, and the circus re-echoed with repeated acclamations.—His wound was mortal, and his friends, gathered around him, even the injured Eliza sympathised in the tears shed on the dying penitent. While the crowd was attentive to the departing Clifford, a man muffled in a pilgrim's habit pressed forward, and throwing open his garment, thus addressed the vanquished champion:—"Thou man of sorrows, behold in this disguise, the person of Caled, once thy vassal, at whose command I undertook the murder of the worthy Bertrand; if thou hast enough of life to hear the event, attend and learn:—"The eyes of



of Clifford were nearly set in night, but, agitated by a thousand emotions, seemed to express a desire to hear the narrative of Caled, who thus proceeded:—"Urged by your entreaties and the hopes of gain, I approached the wood where Bertrand was rapt in pious meditation:—though bribed to murder, and bent on the horrid purpose, I relented, and discovered my intent to the gallant youth, whom I pressed to depart.—I have since heard he rendered himself famous on the plains of Palestine, by insisting in the holy war. You insisted on my privately burying the corpse in the grove leading to the castle of Erasmus; this I told you was performed, and the amiable Eliza caused a superb shrine to be erected to his memory.—I received my reward and fled;—disguised in a pilgrim's habit, I followed Bertrand to Jerusalem—but my search was vain—for soon I heard that Bertrand was no more:—Flushed with success, he joined the Croisades by the gallant Richard, and met the shaft of death before the walls of Cyprus."—Hope, horror, and despair, alternately reigned in the bosom of Eliza during the narrative, at the conclusion of which she fell lifeless at the feet of the victor.—The champion, lifting up his helmet, caught her in his arms: "Behold (cried the stranger) one whose soul is linked to thine—revive, thou paragon of excellence.—'Tis Bertrand

calls thee back to life and love!"—At the well-known name Eliza awakened from her trance, and, after gazing some time with speechless admiration, at length articulated:—"It is, it is, my long-lost Bertrand!" Clifford lived but a few moments after the discovery—he received the pardon of the injured pair, and closed his eyes in peace.—Bertrand turned to the astonished Caled, and embraced him as a friend;—every eye sparkled with joy, and every heart participated in the happiness of Bertrand and Eliza.

It is recorded in the annals of the castle, that virtue shall meet her reward, and vice be humbled at her feet.

After paying the funeral rites to the manes of the unfortunate Clifford, the nuptials were consummated, in the utmost stile of magnificence, at Alwin's palace.—Eliza by degrees recovered her native bloom—love glistened in her eye, and the roses revelled in her cheek. Bertrand again displayed his trophies in the hall of the castle, and again assumed the hero!

The pipe once more gladdened the valleys, and the hills were rendered vocal by the responsive notes of the reed. Peace spread her airy wings athwart the verdant plains,—and the vaulted roofs reverberated the sound of the harp, in the happy castle of Erasmus.

#### RULES FOR CONVERSATION.

**T**HERE is no part, perhaps, of social life, which affords more real satisfaction than those hours which one passes in rational and unreserved conversation. That conversation, however, may answer the ends for which it was designed, the parties who are to join in it must come together with a determined resolution to please, and to be pleased.

In the conduct of it be not eager to interrupt others, or uneasy at being yourself interrupted; since you speak either to amuse or instruct the company, or to receive those benefits from it. Give all, therefore, leave

to speak in turn. Hear with patience, and answer with precision. Inattention is ill manners; it shews contempt; and contempt is never forgiven. Trouble not the company with your own private concerns, as you do not love to be troubled with those of others. Yours are as little to them as theirs are to you. You will need no other rule whereby to judge of this matter. Contrive, but with dexterity and propriety, that each person may have an opportunity of discoursing on the subject with which he is best acquainted. He will be pleased, and you will be informed.

By

By observing this rule, every one has it in his power to assist in rendering conversation agreeable; since, tho' he may not choose, or be qualified, to say much himself, he can propose questions to those who are able to answer them. Avoid stories, unless short, pointed, and quite *a-propos*. He who deals in them, says Swift, must either have a very large stock, or a good memory, or must often change his company. Some have a set of them strung together like onions; they take possession of the conversation by an early introduction of one, and then you must have the whole rope; and there is an end of every thing else, perhaps, for that meeting, though you may have heard all twenty times before.

Talk often, but not long. The talent of haranguing private company is insupportable. Senators and barristers are apt to be guilty of this fault; and members who never harangue in the house, will often do it out of the house. If the majority of the company be naturally silent, or cautious, the conversation will flag, unless it be often renewed by one among them, who can start new subjects. Forbear, however, if possible,

to broach a second before the first is out, lest your stock should not last, and you should be obliged to come back to the old barrel. There are those, who will repeatedly cross upon and break into the conversation with a fresh topic, till they have touched upon all and exhausted none. Economy here is necessary for most people.

Laugh not at your own wit and humour; leave that to the company. When the conversation is flowing in a serious and useful channel, never interrupt it by an ill-timed jest. The stream is scattered, and cannot be again collected. Discourse not in a whisper or half-voice to your next neighbour. It is ill-breeding, and, in some degree, a fraud; conversation-stock being, as one has well observed, a joint and common property.—In reflections on absent people, go no farther than you would go if they were present. "I resolve" (says Bishop Beveridge) never to speak of a man's virtues to his face, nor of his faults behind his back." A golden rule! the observation of which would, at one stroke, banish flattery and defamation from the earth.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE REGATTA AT VENICE.

**T**HE Regatta is a species of amusement peculiar to the republic of Venice. This spectacle has the power of exciting the greatest emotions of the heart, admiration, enthusiasm, a sense of glory, and the whole train of our best feelings. The grand regatta is only exhibited on particular occasions, as the visits of foreign princes and kings at Venice.

It is difficult to give a just idea of the ardour that the notice of a regatta spreads among all classes of the inhabitants of Venice. Proud of the exclusive privilege of giving such a spectacle, through the wonderful local circumstances of their city, they are highly delighted with making preparations a long time before, in order to contribute all they can towards the perfection and enjoyment of the spectacle. A thousand inte-

rests are formed and augmented every day; parties in favour of the different competitors who are known; the protection of young noblemen given to the gondoliers in their service; the desire of honours and rewards in the aspirants; and, in the midst of all this, that ingenious national industry, which awakes the Venetians from their habitual indolence, to derive advantage from the business and agitation of the moment: all these circumstances united give to the numerous inhabitants of this lively city a degree of spirit and animation which render it during that time a delightful abode in the eyes of the philosopher and the stranger. Crowds of people flock from the adjacent parts, and travellers joyfully repair to this scene of gaiety and pleasure.

Although



Although it is allowable for any man to go and inscribe his name in the list of combatants until the fixed number is complete, it will not be amiss to remark one thing, which has relation to more ancient times. The state of a gondolier is of much consideration among the people; which is very natural, that having been the primitive condition of the inhabitants of this country. But, besides this general consideration, there are among them some families truly distinguished and respected by their equals, whose antiquity is acknowledged, and who, on account of a succession of virtuous men, able in their profession, and honoured for the prizes they have carried off in these contests, form the body of noble gondoliers; often more worthy of that title than the higher order of nobility, who only derive their honours from the merit of their ancestors, or from their own riches. The consideration for those families is carried so far, that, in the disputes frequently arising among the gondoliers in their ordinary passage of the canals, we sometimes see a quarrel instantly made up by the simple interposition of a third person, who has chanced to be of this reverend body. They are rigid with respect to misalliances in their families, and they endeavour reciprocally to give and take their wives among those of their own rank. But we must remark here, with pleasure, that these distinctions infer no inequality of condition, nor admit any oppression of inferiors, being founded solely on laudable and virtuous opinions. Distinctions derived from fortune only, are those which always outrage nature, and often virtue.

In general, the competitors at the great regattas are chosen from among these families of reputation. As soon as they are fixed upon for this exploit, they spend the intermediate time in preparing themselves for it, by a daily, assiduous, and fatiguing, exercise. If they are in service, their masters during that time not only give them their liberty, but also augment their wages. This custom would seem to indicate, that they look upon them as persons consecrated to the honour

of the nation, and under a sort of obligation to contribute to its glory.

At last the great day arrives. Their relations assemble together: they encourage the heroes, by calling to their minds the records of their families; the women present the oar, beseeching them, in an epic tone, to remember that they are the sons of famous men, whose steps they will be expected to follow: this they do with as much solemnity as the Spartan women presented the shield to their sons, bidding them either return with or upon it. Religion, as practised among the lower class of people, has its share in the preparation for this enterprize. They cause masses to be said; they make vows to some particular church; and they arm their boats for the contest with the images of those saints who are most in vogue. Sorcerers are not forgotten upon this occasion. For gondoliers who have lost the race often declare, that witchcraft had been practised against them, or certainly they must have won the day. Such a supposition prevents a poor fellow from thinking ill of himself; an opinion that might be unfavourable to him another time.

The course is about four miles. The boats start from a certain place, run through the great winding canal which divides the town into two parts, turn round a picket, and, coming back the same way, go and seize the prize, which is fixed at the acutest angle of the great canal, on the convex side, so that the point of sight may be the more extended, and the prize seized in the sight of the spectators on both sides.

According to the number of competitors, different races are performed in different sorts of boats; some with one oar and others with two. The prizes proposed are four, indicated by four flags of different colours, with the different value of the prizes marked upon them.—These flags, public and glorious monuments, are the prizes to which the competitors particularly aspire. But the government always adds to each a genteel sum of money; besides that the conquerors, immediately after the victory, are surrounded by all  
the

the *beau monde*, who congratulate and make them presents; after which they go, bearing their honourable trophy in their hand, down the whole length of the canal, and receive the applause of innumerable spectators.

This grand canal, ever striking by the singularity and beauty of the buildings which border it, is upon these occasions covered with an infinity of spectators, in all sorts of barges, boats, and gondolas. The element on which they move is scarcely seen; but the noise of oars, the agitation of arms and bodies in perpetual motion, indicate the spectacle to be upon the water. At certain distances, on each side of the shore, are erected little amphitheatres and scaffoldings, where are placed bands of music; the harmonious sound of which predominates now and then over the buzzing noise of the people. Some days before a regatta, one may see on the great canal many boats for for pleasure and entertainment. The young noble, the citizen, the rich artizan, mounts a long boat of six or eight oars; his gondoliers decorated with rich and singular dresses, and the vessel itself adorned with various stuffs. Among the nobles there are always a number who are at a considerable expence in these decorations; and at the regatta itself exhibit on the water personages of mythologic story, with the heroes of antiquity in their train, or amuse themselves with representing the costumi of different nations: in short, people contribute

with a mad sort of magnificence, from all quarters, to this masquerade, the favourite diversion of the Venetians. But these great machines, not being the less in motion on account of their ornaments, are not merely destined to grace the show: they are employed at the regatta, at every moment, to range the people, to protect the course, and to keep the avenue open and clear to the goal. The nobility, kneeling upon cushions at the prow of their vessels, are attentive to these matters, and announce their orders to the most restive, by darting at them little gilded or silver balls, by means of certain bows, with which they are furnished on this occasion. And this is the only appearance of coercion in the Venetian police on these days of the greatest tumult: nor is there to be seen, in any part of the city, a body of guards or patrol, nor even a gun or a halbert. The mildness of the nation, its gaiety, its education in the habit of believing that the government is ever awake, that it knows and sees every thing; its respectful attachment to the body of patricians; the sole aspect of certain officers of the police in their robes, dispersed in different places, at once operate and explain that tranquillity, that security, which we see in the midst of the greatest confusion, and that surprising docility in so lively and fiery a people. Regattas have been attempted on the river Thames, but they are but humble imitations of the Venetian amusement.

#### NOBLE AND HEROIC BEHAVIOUR OF JANE L' AISNE' AT THE SIEGE OF BEAUVAIS IN PICARDY.

**I**N June and July 1472, Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, laid siege to Beauvais in Picardy, and pressed it vigorously. Two assaults were made; the last on the 9th of July, which lasted four hours, and in which the Burgundians lost a great many men and the flower of their army, who were overturned in the trenches; they also lost three standards. At length they raised the siege, and retired, on the 22d of the same month.—In the assault of the 9th, the garrison, and the inhabitants, both men and women, came on the ramparts, and defended themselves

with great intrepidity; no fatigue could discourage them, nor did they cease fighting, or fortifying and repairing the walls and gates of the city, till the enemy were repulsed. The women, particularly, performed wonders, having at their head Jane l'Aisné. The letters-patent for certain privileges granted to her family by Louis XI. in 1473, recite, that they were granted "in consideration of the resistance made in the preceding year by our dear and well-beloved Jane l'Aisné, who seized and took a standard or banner from the Burgundians." SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## A U T U M N.

BY CHARLOTTE SMITH.

THE garlands fade that spring so lately wove,  
Each simple flower which she had nurs'd in dew,  
Anemonies that spangled every grove,  
The primrose wan, and hare-bell mildly blue.

No more shall violets linger in the dell,  
Or purple orchis variegate the plain,  
Till spring again shall call forth every bell,  
And dress with humid hands her wreaths again.

Ah! poor Humanity! so frail, so fair,  
Are the fond visions of thy early day;  
Till tyrant passion and corrosive care,  
Bid all thy fairy colours fade away!  
Another May new buds and flowers shall bring;  
Ah! why has Happiness no second spring?

## WHEN BRITAIN'S SILVER TRUMPET SOUNDS.

A SONG.

THREE lads contended for my heart:  
Each boasted different charms and grace.  
Young Hal cou'd sing with taste and art;  
Beau Jemmy sported frogs and lace;  
Blithe William was a soldier brave,  
Who fear'd not scars, nor death, nor wounds,  
His country or his love to save,  
When Britain's silver trumpet sounds.

Now fear is rous'd by war's alarms,  
And threat'ning foes each hour arise,  
I scorn young Harry's vocal charms,  
And Master Jemmy I despise:  
I love my Willy bold and brave,  
He heeds not scars, nor death, nor wounds,  
His country or his love to save,  
When Britain's silver trumpet sounds.

In piping times of peace a beau,  
Dear girls, may idle thoughts employ;  
But now, while threaten'd by each foe,  
Be wise and throw away the toy.  
Take my advice, love him that's brave,  
Who fears not scars, nor death, nor wounds;  
So may your smiles your country save,  
While Britain's silver trumpet sounds.

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## INVOCATION TO PATRIOTISM.

PATRIOTISM, pow'r divine,  
Lo! I bow before thy shrine;  
Wake my feelings, touch my heart,  
Rouse my passions, lift my dart;  
Bid me guard my country's laws,  
Or fall a victim in a sacred cause.

Straight I feel my spirits glow,  
Life's gay floods more vig'rous flow;  
Louder beats the doubling drum,  
Heav'nly pow'r! I come, I come,  
Firm to guard my country's laws,  
Or fall a victim in a sacred cause.

Come, companions, come and join;  
Form the long embattl'd line,  
Sound the silver trumpet's strain,  
Hide with banners all the plain;  
Come, and guard your country's laws,  
Or all fall victims in a sacred cause.

Hail, oh maid! thy pow'r they feel,  
See, they point their burnish'd steel;  
See, convulsed treason die,  
See, the palid faction fly,  
Whilst we guard our country's laws,  
Or all fall victims in a sacred cause.

## THE CORPORATION DINNER.

THE people of York since Severus's days,  
On the beef and the mutton bestow ample praise,  
And expend a great part of the citizens treasure  
In eating, which they think life's principal pleasure.  
Being known to the mayor through a distant relation,  
I was press'd hard to dine with the whole corporation.

Now each seiz'd his plate e'er the cook could uncover,  
And the chaplain said grace with his fork in a plover;  
I sat harrow'd with thought when I saw them begin,  
And exclaim'd, Heav'n help us, if eating's a sin!  
They all had assembl'd at gaunt famine's call,  
And 'twas each for himself, and not one for 'em all;  
For all went to labour like masons at Babel,  
And confusion burst forward and govern'd the table.

Here

K k

Here waiter—you waiter, come none of  
your sneers,  
I've bawl'd my throat fore—sure the  
scoundrel's no ears.  
More bread—bring some porter—you dog  
where's the custard—  
A wing of that duck—more laverel—some  
mustard—  
Why all the fat's gone from the turtle—  
here's manners—  
Zounds! the geese are as tough as the  
hides of old tanners—  
A bottle of wine here, for I and my friend  
there;  
This feast is not worth half the time that  
we spend here.  
Neighbour Spriggins, I challenge your  
glass hob-a-nob—  
Where the devil's the wenfon? this din-  
ner's a job—  
More pepper—a slice of that haunch  
where the rest's cut,  
You villain! the gravy has spoil'd my fine  
waistcoat.  
I've been roaring for that roasted mutton  
this hour,  
A morsel of weal—'sblood, the sherry is  
sour.

I shall never forget when the pastry came in  
What a vehement shout, what a sense-  
stunning din;  
The cook had scarce plac'd the first pye  
as cooks must,  
Before seven knives were stuck deep in the  
crust;  
While others, fore gall'd that their neigh-  
bours had trick'd 'em,  
Pick'd the juice from the edge with their  
fingers, and lick'd 'em.  
But an old furlly cit, to accomplish his  
wishes,  
Spread his wide broad-cloth sleeves o'er  
the hot smocking dishes;  
Then strove to impress them with decen-  
cy's rule,  
And by the subsequent tale the cit was  
no fool.

### JACK JUNK.

From the SIEGE of CURZOLA.

**I** ONCE was neat and tight,  
Though now I'm out of date,  
I learn'd to read and write,  
And cypher on my slate.  
Though I was mother's joy,  
My father said to the,  
Our Jack's a drunken boy,  
And he shall go to sea.  
Hip, ho, I'm spunk,  
Hey sober, he drunk!  
And that's the humour of tipsey Jack  
Junk.

My Molly, looking grum,  
Cry'd, Go you boozing chap;  
Yet in a glass of rum  
Pray wou'd she wash her cap?  
When wishing for to toy  
I steps me up to she,  
'Twas, Go you drunken boy,  
Go get along to sea.  
Hip, ho! I'm spunk, &c.

When my first trip I steer,  
Jamaica ho, so stout;  
My venture was good beer,  
I drank my venture out.  
On yard or hammock swung,  
'Tis all alike to me,  
My drunken boys among,  
No life like Jack at sea.  
Hip, ho! I'm spunk,  
Hey sober, hey drunk!  
And that's the humour of tipsey Jack  
Junk.

### LOUISA.

AN ELEGIAC ODE.

**W**HEN Night's dark mantle veil'd  
the seas,  
And Nature's self was hush'd to sleep;  
When gently blew the midnight breeze,  
Louisa fought the boundless deep.

On a lone beach, in wild despair,  
She sat, bereft of calm repose;  
Her bitter wailings rent the air,  
And sad were fair Louisa's woes.

Three years she nurs'd the pleasing  
thought—  
Her love—her Henry—would return:  
When, ah! the fatal news was brought—  
The sea was made his wat'ry urn.

Ye fair, who know the pow'r of love,  
You best can tell what she must feel;  
Who, 'gainst each adverse fortune, strove  
The tender passion to conceal.

Bewilder'd, lost, absorb'd in grief,  
While madness ran through ev'ry vein,  
The mourner sought from death relief—  
And, frantic, plung'd into the main!

The Heav'ns with pity saw her end,  
The frantic deed of hopeless love,  
And bade their angel guard descend,  
And bear Louisa's soul above.

### On the FIFTH of NOVEMBER.

By an IRISH BELLMAN.

**T**O-night's the day, I speak it with  
great sorrow,  
That we were all to have been blown up  
to-morrow;  
Therefore, take care of fires and candle-  
light,  
'Tis a cold frosty morn, and so good  
night.

FOREIGN



## F O R E I G N N E W S.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

ST. IDELPHONSO, *August 26.*

YESTERDAY being the feast of St. Louis, and the name-day of the queen, it was celebrated at court with unusual magnificence. In the evening the following marriages were solemnized in the great apartment of the palace, viz. the Infanta Donna Maria, eldest daughter of the king, with her uncle the Infant Don Antonio, brother to the king; and the Infanta Donna Maria Louisa, second daughter to his majesty, with the hereditary Prince of Parma, who is declared Infant of Spain. The cardinal patriarch officiated; and all the foreign ministers were invited to assist at the ceremony.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *October 3.*

*Copy of a Letter from Admiral Hotham to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Britannia, Leghorn Road, Sept. 1, 1795.*

SIR,

HEREWITH I have the pleasure to inclose to you, for their lordships' information, a letter that I received this evening, by express, from Captain Nelson, of his majesty's ship the Agamemnon, giving an account of his having proceeded, with the ships therein mentioned, to the bays of Alaffio and Languelia, places in the neighbourhood of Vado, in the possession of the French armies, and of his having cut from thence the nine vessels named in the enclosed list, besides two that he destroyed.

His officer-like conduct upon this, and, indeed, upon every occasion, where his services are called forth, reflects upon him the highest credit. I am, Sir,

Your most obedient servant,  
Evan Nepean, Esq. W. HOTHAM.

*Copy of a Letter from Captain H. Nelson to Admiral Hotham, dated Agamemnon, Vado Bay, August 27, 1795.*

SIR,

HAVING received information from General de Vins, that a convoy of provisions and ammunition was arrived at Alaffio, a place in the possession of the French army, I yesterday proceeded, with the ships named in the margin\*, to that place, where, within an hour, we took the vessels named in the inclosed list; there was but a very feeble opposition from some of the enemy's cavalry, who fired on our boats when boarding the vessels near the

shore, but I have the pleasure to say no man was killed or wounded. The enemy had two thousand horse and foot soldiers in the town, which prevented my landing and destroying their magazines of provisions and ammunition.

I sent Captain Freemantle, of the Inconstant, with the Tartar, to Languelia, a town on the west side of the bay of Alaffio, where he executed my orders in a most officer-like manner; and I am indebted to every captain and officer in the squadron for their activity, but most particularly so to Lieutenant George Andrews, first lieutenant of the Agamemnon, who, by his spirited and officer-like conduct, saved the French corvette from going on shore. I have the honour to be, Sir, with the highest respect, your most obedient servant,

HORATIO NELSON.

*Admiral Hotham.*

*A List of Vessels taken by his Majesty's Squadron, under the Command of Horatio Nelson, Esq. in the Bay of Alaffio and Languelia, August the 26th, 1795.*

La Resolue (corvette) pollaco ship, 10 guns, 4 swivels, 87 men; and 6 guns thrown overboard. Belonging to the French.

La Republique, gun-boat, 6 guns, 49 men. Belonging to the French.

La Constitution galley, 1 brass gun, 4 swivels, 30 men. Belonging to the French.

La Vigilante, galley, 1 brass gun, 4 swivels, 29 men. Belonging to the French.

A Brig, in ballast, name unknown, burthen 100 tons. Belonging to the French.

A Bark, name unknown, burthen 70 tons, laden with powder and shells. Belonging to the French.

La Guiletta, brig, burthen 100 tons, laden with wine. Belonging to the French.

A Galley, name unknown, burthen 50 tons, in ballast.

A Tartane, name unknown, burthen 35 tons, laden with wine.

A Bark, name unknown, laden with powder, drove on shore.

A Bark, name unknown, laden with provisions, burnt.

HORATIO NELSON.

\* Inconstant, Meleager, Southampton, Tartar, Ariadne, and Speedy.

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ADMIRALTY

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *October 3.*

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Harvey, dated Prince of Wales, off Belleisle, September 27, 1795, to Evan Nepean, Esq.*

YOU will be pleased to inform their lordships, that the Minotaur and Porcupine yesterday evening recaptured the Walsingham packet, from Falmouth to Lisbon. She had been taken the 13th instant by l'Infolent, corvette brig, of eighteen guns and ninety men, who very narrowly escaped being taken on the recapture of the packet, but got into l'Orient when just within reach of gun shot of our ships.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *October 6.*

*Extract of two Letters from Vice-admiral Kingsmill to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on-board l'Engageante, in Cork Harbour, Sept. 21st.*

HIS majesty's ship Seahorse is just returned from her cruize. Capt. Peyton informs me, that on the 29th of August the Squadron fell in with two ships and a brig. The Seahorse took one ship, which proved to be a Dutch East-India ship, called the Cromhout; the Diana took the other ship, a South-whaler, laden with oil and coffee.

Sept. 28. His majesty's ship the Unicorn arrived here yesterday, with her prize the Comet Dutch sloop of war, mounting eighteen English nine-pounders. I have examined the latter closely, and think she is the completest vessel of her class that I ever heard of, and even exceeds the opinion given me of her by an inclosed letter from Capt. Williams.

*Copy of a Letter from Capt. Williams to Vice admiral Kingsmill, dated Unicorn, at sea, Sept. 5.*

SIR,

I beg leave to inform you, that on the 28th ult. when cruising, in conjunction with the Diana and Seahorse, in lat. 61 d. 18 m. long. 4 d. 17 m. the signal was made by Capt. Faulknor, of the Unicorn, under my command, to part company and chase after a brig that had outtailed and separated from two ships which the Squadron were then in pursuit of. After a chase of thirteen hours, I was so fortunate as to come up with her, and, when she had discharged her guns and struck her colours, to take possession of her. She proves to be the Comet, a Dutch sloop of war, mounting eighteen nine-pounders, commanded by Mynheer Claris, from the Cape of Good Hope, bound to the Texel. The Comet is a remarkably fine vessel, only

four years old, sails extremely well, and is in every respect well calculated for his majesty's service.

I have the honour to be, &c.

THO. WILLIAMS.

*Dimensions of the Comet, being copper-bolted and coppered.*

Length of gun-deck 102 feet 7 inches. Length of keel 95 feet 10 inches. Breadth of beam 29 feet 9 inches. Height between decks 6 feet. And carries nine months water, and provisions for one hundred and ten men.

From the MARTINIQUE GAZETTE.

ST. PIERRE'S, *July 8.*

THE brig Clarissa, of this port, sailed from Cork the 15th of May, and was taken the 6th of June, in lat. 27. long. 33. by a gun-boat schooner rigged, of three four-pounders, and eighty men, bound from Rochfort to Cayenne. An officer, six men, and three boys, were put on-board in charge of the prize; four of the brig's people were left on-board, the chief mate, the steward (a mulatto man), and two passengers, the one lame and the other confined to his bed. In this situation the schooner towed them for eleven days, to so high a southern latitude as seven, and during that time it was with difficulty that the passenger, confined to his bed, though possessed of some influence amongst them, restrained their impetuosity. Fortunately the schooner cast them off and left them; the officer's sword and two pistols one of the passengers had secreted, the only weapons on-board prepared for the occasion. The vessel was demanded by the mate from the officer, on the after-part of the quarter-deck, and, with the generosity which characterises his country, his life and good treatment were offered in case of compliance. An immediate scuffle ensued in consequence; the mate's pistol missed the first fire, and was broke on the officer's head; two severe wounds immediately followed; and, continuing to encourage his astonished men, and to refuse the generous offers made him, he fell a victim to the passenger's reserved pistol and drew his last breath with expressions of surprise and regret, that ten republicans should fall beneath the courage of three Britons; his second being severely wounded on the arm and knee by the steward, and the third in command having received a deep cut on the breast, quarter was called for, and immediately granted; and so great was the impression that the courage and exertions of these three men made on the nine remaining republicans, that they made no attempt whatever, during nine-



teen days voyage, to regain their liberty. Fortunately for these brave men, they made this port this evening, without any assistance but what they drew from nature, and the resources of their own minds. The commercial laws of their country have amply provided for them, and they will be living evidences of the reward that constantly attends enterprise, generosity, and courage.

#### FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

The following are the grand features of the constitution which the people of France have accepted:

##### THE LEGISLATIVE BODY

Is composed of the council of ancients, consisting of two hundred and fifty citizens, who are or have been married, and must necessarily have completed their fortieth year at the time of their election; and

The council of five hundred, a number here invariable. The present members are eligible at twenty five; until the seventh year of the republic this will be allowed; then it will be necessary they should be thirty.

This commons house cannot deliberate without two hundred members being present. They alone propose bills, or, as they term them, resolutions, and decide at the third reading whether they shall be sent to the upper house.

When the council of ancients approves of the resolution, it becomes a law. Its assent is thus expressed—The council of ancients approves. Its dissent thus—The constitution annuls, when the decree is informal, or contrary to the constitution. When they cannot approve the principle of the law proposed, "The council of ancients cannot adopt." This is understood of the whole, which cannot be again offered until a year shall elapse; though it may be broken into parts and presented at any time.

The ancients can irrevocably change the place of sitting for both houses, which must be in one commune; they can neither of them deliberate in the place they have abandoned afterwards.

The personal freedom of the members is guaranteed by the legislature, except when seized *in flagrante delicto*, and then notice must be given, and the house decide upon the arrest. Thirty days after the expiration of their mission their persons are inviolable.

##### THE EXECUTIVE POWER

Is a delegation from the legislative body to a directory of five members which it names. The council of five hundred forms by secret scrutiny a list of members for the

directory, and the ancients by the same method elect the five who are to fill that office. They must all of them be forty at least.

The directory is partially renewed by the introduction of one member every year: for the four first years, it is decided by lot which member goes out, and he is not re-eligible until an interval of five years has elapsed. Relations in the right line cannot be in power at the same time, nor succeed each other without the same interval.

In cases of death the member is replaced in ten days, and the successor completes only the term of his predecessor's power. Each member presides three months alternately. He has then the signature and the custody of the seal.

The members of the directory must be present to deliberate; they may do so without a secretary, and register their deliberations in a particular book.

The directory, conformably to the laws, provides for the internal and external safety of the republic. It disposes absolutely of the armed force, without any intervention of the legislature, or any of its members, even for two years after the expiration of its functions.

The directory names the commanders in chief and the ministers of state, and recalls those powers at pleasure.

But the legislative body determines the number and attributes of ministers—these are six at least, and eight at most.

The directory nominates the receivers of all taxes and contributions, and the administrators of national property; it presents a yearly account of the finances of state. It may suggest any object to the consideration of the five hundred, but not in the form of laws.

The directory must reside in the same commune as the legislative bodies, and the salary of each member is fixed at the value of ten thousand two hundred and twenty-two quintals of wheat.

Such are the leading principles which it will be necessary for those to carry in their recollection, who are deterred by any tedious plan, and have neither leisure nor inclination to peruse the whole constitution, now accepted so generally as to ensure its coming into operation.

The following are the words of the decree of acceptance: "The National Convention, having heard the report of its committees of decrees, procès-verbeaux, and archives, declares that the Constitutional Act is accepted by the French nation, and becomes the fundamental law of the state."

## DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

OCTOBER I.

**T**HE expedition against France under General Doyle may now be considered as having failed; and an express is gone from the Admiralty, to Isle Dieu, a small inconsiderable place of which the British took possession, ordering back immediately the four regiments at present there—the 12th, 78th, 80th, and 90th. They will remain at Plymouth until the whole expedition for the West Indies is completed; and sail upon that object to which, in the present system of the British cabinet, every thing apparently gives way. Sir Ralph Abercrombie has been at Southampton some days, at the embarkation of the troops for the West Indies. After the completion of this business he will come to town to take leave of the king and the cabinet ministers. The men of war and transports are to proceed to Cork, the appointed place of rendezvous; at which place the commander in chief will join them.

OCT. 12. The following unfortunate intelligence has been received from the West Indies. On Monday the 21st of September, the Hibberts, in company with the Emerald and another, in lat. 45. N. and lon. 28. fell in with and was captured by a squadron of French vessels, commanded by Maülshaw, consisting of le Forte, of forty-four guns; le Tortue, of forty-eight guns; Nereid, of fifty guns; Favius, of twenty guns; a brig of fourteen guns; and a lugger of eighteen guns. This squadron was dispatched from Rochefort about a month before, in order to intercept the homeward-bound trade from the West Indies, and had, previous to the above-mentioned captures, taken, and sent into France, the ships *Uriana* and *Fisher* belonging to the homeward-bound Jamaica fleet. On the 23d of September, they captured the *Thames*, *Atterbury*; and the *Albion*, *Renwick*; part of the same fleet: it is much to be feared they would meet with many more, as there were between thirty and forty vessels about a day's sail astern of the ships that were captured, without any ship for their protection. On the 25th of September the *Favius* gave chase to, and took, the *Kent*, *Maule*, belonging to the same fleet. On the 30th, gave chase to, and took, the *Carrier*, *Bryan*, of the same fleet. At same time saw two large ships in sight, about three leagues to the northward, the wind being at N. N. E. were steering E. The captain of the *Favius* put all the

English prisoners, excepting the captains, by whose company he began to be rather alarmed, on-board the *Carrier*, and told them they were at liberty to make the best of their way to England, and immediately gave chase to the large ships. We learn from the squadron, that there was another squadron considerably stronger then cruising in the latitude of Cape-Clear, under the same instructions.—Vessels captured are, the *Hibberts*, *Emerald*, *Uriana*, *Fisher*, *Thames*, *Albion*, *Kent*, *Carrier*, 1 name unknown; 10 missing.

OCT. 19. Our Mediterranean fleet, on its way homeward under convoy of the *Bedford*, of 74 guns; *Le Censeur*, of 74; the *Fortitude*, 74; the *Argo*, 44; the *Juno*, 32; the *Lutine*, 32; and the *Typhphone*, 12; were met on the 7th instant, off St. Vincent's, a southern cape of Portugal, by a French squadron from *Toulon*; consisting of *La Victoire*, flag of 90 guns, Admiral *Richery*; *Du Barren*, of 80; *La Resolution*, of 74; *Berwick*, (English,) 74; *Jupiter*, 74; *Dubaurne*, 74; *Nereid*, 50; *Tartuffe*, 46; and some other frigates. The British admiral, as soon as this squadron was descried, made the signal for wearing and standing from it; but the French ships, carrying a press of sail, soon came up, and commenced an action. The French frigates were dispatched in pursuit of the merchantmen. By a shot from one of the headmost ships, the *Censeur's* fore-top mast was carried away, and the rigging so disabled, that she was forced to be taken in tow by the *Lutine*. The van ship, however, of the French coming up, the *Lutine* was forced to quit the *Censeur*. Without continuing the action with the *Censeur*, the van ship chased the *Bedford* and *Fortitude*, which she brought to action; the other ships of the French line approaching very fast to her assistance. The intelligence thus far was brought to Portsmouth by the *Justina*, one of the Mediterranean fleet, a very fast sailer. Happily for the country, owing to the excellent skill of our commanders, the *Censeur*, Captain *Gore*, is the only king's ship that has fallen into the hands of the enemy; for the *Bedford*, *Fortitude*, *Lutine*, and *Typhphone*, with about forty of the merchantmen, arrived at Spithead on Saturday. The *Argo* and *Juno* frigates, with about thirty of the convoy, parted company the night after the fleet sailed from Gibraltar, in coming out of the Straights, and are believed to have put back to Gibraltar. The number of merchantmen



chantmen taken by the enemy is supposed to be 53: the fleet, including ships of war, consisted of 99 sail.

OCT. 20. The operations on the Rhine continue with great vigour. The Austrians seem to be recovering from the consternation into which they were at first thrown, and to be taking active measures to stop the progress of the enemy. Several skirmishes have taken place, in which the Austrians have, in general, been successful.

The most prominent event which has happened within these last few days, is capture of Costheim, of which the French made themselves masters after a severe cannonade, which lasted twenty-four hours. The French, in possession of this place, have now entirely blockaded Mentz, and concentrated all their forces in the vicinity of Cassel. The capture of Costheim was much facilitated by the Austrians having committed the fault of allowing the French to construct a bridge across the Mayn, near Hocheim. Costheim is a village opposite to Mentz, seated in the angle formed by the confluence of the Mayne and the Rhine. Its situation, and the works that have been thrown up around it, render it so important, that, in the siege of Mentz by the Prussians, it was contended for till every house was destroyed to the foundation. After this it remained an object of picturesque though melancholy desolation for more than a twelvemonth, and in July 1794 the former owners began to rebuild the houses, now probably again destroyed. The garrison of Cassel may be much inconvenienced from the post of Costheim, but are not of necessity to be expelled, for the Prussians were masters of Costheim without being able to obtain Cassel, till the latter place was surrendered, together with the city of Mentz.—Costheim is since re-taken by the Austrians.

The troops which, under Gen. Wurmer, have already effected a junction with Clairfait, were chiefly cavalry; but eleven battalions of grenadiers are on their march to join them, and the whole reinforcement will amount to thirty thousand men. It is farther said, that a strong body of troops from Bohemia has also received orders to join General Clairfait.

The garrison of Ehrenbreitstein continues to make the most vigorous resistance, and have hitherto foiled all the attempts of the French to reduce that important fortress.

All the British officers recently released from prison in France, report that the convention have been making the most vigorous marine exertions; ships are building in every port of the kingdom, and in

such places as timber can conveniently be had the frames of the vessels are there formed, and conveyed by canals and land-carriage to the sea.

The French are still building an extraordinary number of gun-boats; at St. Maloes in August last, there were upwards of three hundred of these vessels, each capable of carrying from five hundred to a thousand men.

Much attention has been recently devoted to strengthen the fortifications of Brest: by sea it is nearly impregnable, and towards the land, in addition to the old works, it is guarded by a double ditch and four advanced redoubts, which communicate with the citadel of Brest by means of subterraneous passages. In these passages mines have been constructed, that in case of an enemy possessing themselves of the redoubts, they may be blown up. Eleven thousand galley-slaves are daily employed in fresh works, and the garrison of the place comprises fifteen thousand effective men.

OCT. 24. A gold mine has been discovered in the county of Wicklow, Ireland; of which the following is a corrected account:—The stream, from the banks and bed of which the gold is got, is about two feet wide, and runs in a sharp valley between two steep mountains, the one called Ballan-valley, and the other Ballynafullogue, about four miles from Arklow, on the Wicklow side: this stream, gushing from the side of a hill, runs a course of about three miles between those two mountains, which ascend steeply on each side from its brink, and terminates in a little bog or moor, where its waters mix with those of the swamp; and in this bog, and along the bed of the streamlet, the search for gold has for some weeks past been directed with astonishing success. The miners who seek it, are but very ill skilled in the science of mineralogy; they are the simple peasantry of the neighbourhood, and either pursue their search by scrambling in the sand and mud, or by digging holes at random from the sides of the streams into the base of the mountains, of various depth from two to five feet, where they find the metal in its rude state in the fissures of the broken rock, or attached to lumps of quartz or petrified water. While the men pursue this laborious part of the work, the women carefully wash the bog-mud, sand, and exfoliated clay, in large wooden plat- ters, and find the gold in small flat grains like battered shot, but quite pure. In this wild manner only has the search gone forward; and our correspondent says, that a quantity worth twelve or fourteen thousand pounds has thus been procured with-  
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in a very few weeks. Before he went to the country, a country fellow came into his shop, and offered him for sale a quantity of about ten pounds weight, in grains and lumps, and demanded for it four pounds per ounce; but he did not then think fit to purchase it. A vast quantity has, however, been sold in town in various weights. The gold-finders work day and night, and such is the avidity, that the labourers have left their harvest, and consigned it to rot on the surface of the earth, in order to seek a golden harvest in its bowels; even the servant maids of the surrounding farmers, and also of Arklow town, have quitted their places, and betaken themselves to the adventurous researches of this New Peru. The discovery of this gold mine there is not new, though it has been a secret in the family of the Rosils thereabouts upwards of thirteen years, who found and sold considerable quantities of it from time to time; but a junior branch of the family, in company with an older friend, when he found a large lump of gold, claimed half, but was refused; and, on threatening to disclose the family secret, received a desperate beating, which prompted him to fulfil his threats, and thus the matter got wind. The bowels of the adjacent mountains may be, as they are conjectured to be, full of gold, from those unusually rich specimens that have been so abundantly found. The owners of the soil, and to whom the royalties belong, are Lord Carysfort, the Earl of Arran, and the Earl of Ormond.

OCT. 26. A few days ago John Norton, Esq. one of the sheriffs' peers of the city of Dublin, went on-board his majesty's ship *Invincible*, at Portsmouth, and presented the Hon. Thomas Pakenham with his freedom of that city, in a box of Irish oak, highly ornamented, and on which is the following inscription: "Be it remembered, that at a general assembly of the Rt. Hon. the Lord Mayor, sheriffs, commons, and citizens, of the city of Dublin, held on the 16th day of January, 1795, the Freedom of the said city was unanimously granted to the Hon. T. Pakenham, captain of his majesty's ship *Invincible*, as a mark of the corporation's esteem, for having, upon all occasions, distinguished himself as a brave and spirited officer, and particularly in the glorious victory obtained over the French fleet on the first of June, 1794, when by his noble and gallant conduct he added lustre to the character of Irishmen."

A large square-rigged French vessel, mounting 23 guns, called the *Vengeur*, of

Havre-de-Grace, which has lately captured several of our merchantmen, was captured by a Bristol privateer, a few days ago, in the Irish Channel, after a severe action of several hours. A sudden squall coming on shortly after, the privateer cut the hawse, when she dropped astern, and in ten minutes foundered by a high sea sternmost, and every soul on-board perished.

A distribution of the prize-money from the capture of *St. Eustatia* has been made within these few days, after a period of thirteen years. How distressing is it to add, that the brave fellows concerned therein, who are alive, after coming some hundred miles to receive it, were paid no more than seven shillings each! Many of the honest tars declare, that the expence on the road for bread and cheese was beyond the receipt.

A Court Martial was held a few days ago on-board the *Bellerophon*, in Portsmouth harbour, on Moses Hauker, Esq. purser of the *Lion*, of 64 guns, for neglect of duty and disobedience of orders. These charges were exhibited against him by Capt. Palmer, commander of the *Lion*. The charges not being in any part proved, he was acquitted.

Sir John Laforey has sent home charges of complaint against Admiral Thompson, who is arrived in the Downs from the West-India station; in consequence of which he will be tried by a Court Martial.

OCT. 27. The last Paris papers bring accounts of a dreadful insurrection at Paris, particularly on the 7th instant, when more than two thousand lives were lost in a violent contest between some of the sections and the convention. It appears that five sections, at least, joined, or attempted to join, the section of Lepelletier in the attack on the convention; and fired upon the guard several times, before the guard received orders to repel force by force. Being unprovided with cannon, with which the defenders of the convention were well supplied, they were repelled and put to flight every where, in the course of a few hours.—The convention professes the purest intentions of using its victory with moderation, and of punishing only the leaders of the revolt. They disclaim all thoughts of reviving the odious system of terror, and have resolved that the meeting of the new legislature shall take place the 27th inst, the day appointed. Three military councils are instituted to try the delinquents, of whom all but the inferior agents seem to have made their escape. These courts last only ten days, and pass sentence on all who do not appear.



ACCOUNT OF THE LIFE OF OLIVER CROMWELL,  
WITH SOME ANECDOTES VERY LITTLE KNOWN.

**O**LIVER CROMWELL was born at Huntingdon on the 25th of April, 1599, being descended of an ancient and considerable family in that county. His father sent him to Cambridge, where he was a student in Sydney College. On his father's death, he returned home, and began to lead a very extravagant kind of life, on which his mother was advised to send him to Lincoln's Inn, where he betook himself to the study of the law; but, not liking that employment, he returned into the country, and resumed his former vicious courses, to the wasting of a great part of his paternal estate, which was about 300*l.* per annum.

Some time after this he became greatly reformed, and grew very sober and religious; and, having had an estate of 400*l.* per annum left him by an uncle, he married Elizabeth daughter of Sir James Boucher.

After his reformation, he adhered for some time to the church of England; but, at length, falling into the hands of the puritans, he became a zealous friend to that party, frequently entertaining their ministers at his house. At this time he is said to have been so scrupulously just, that, having some years before won thirty pounds of a gentleman at play, he now paid it back again, telling him that he had got it by indirect and unlawful means, and that it would be a sin in him to keep it any longer.

The puritans being in 1637 much persecuted by Archbishop Laud, a design was formed by Cromwell, Hampden, and some others, to transport themselves to New England, but were prevented by an order of council.

He was chosen member for the town of Cambridge in 1640, in what was called the long parliament; and became a zealous and forward opposer of grievances in religion.

At the breaking out of the civil war, in which he acted so conspicuous a part, he first obtained from the

parliament the commission of captain of a troop of horse, which he raised in his own country. In 1643 he was advanced to the degree of colonel; in which post he did such singular service for the parliament, that he was soon after made lieutenant-general to the Earl of Manchester. The first remarkable victory he gained was near Gainsborough, where he defeated and killed Colonel Cavendish, who had three times his force, and relieved the place. (Cromwell's letter to the parliament on this occasion will be given in the annexed History of the Wars of England, to which we must also refer the reader for a full and comprehensive account of all the battles in which Cromwell was engaged.)

"This," says Whitelock, "was the beginning of Cromwell's great fortunes, and now he began to appear in the world. He had a brave regiment of horse of his countrymen, most of them freeholders and freeholders' sons, who upon matter of conscience engaged in this quarrel under Cromwell; and, being thus well armed within by the satisfaction of their own consciences, and without by good iron arms, they would as one man stand firmly and charge desperately." Cromwell's policy was very much seen in making choice of such men as these, who had a persuasion they were engaged in the cause of God, to serve under him against the king's party.

After gaining the battle of Marston Moor in 1644, Cromwell began to be very much taken notice of, some admiring and others envying his great success, and dreading his aspiring temper and enterprising genius. The Lord General Essex and the Scotch commissioners began to be particularly jealous of him; so that they were once in consultation how to get rid of him; however, as they could not agree among themselves about the mode of proceeding, Cromwell escaped for that time. A very curious

account of this conference may be seen at large in Whitelock, a contemporary writer, who was also one of the parties, and gave his opinion among the rest.

Cromwell was also now very much dreaded by the king's party. Archbishop Williams had warned Charles in the strongest terms to beware of Cromwell, declaring him to be the most dangerous enemy the king had; and therefore advised him either to win him over to his side by promises of fair treatment, or catch him by some stratagem, and cut him short. This is said to have made such an impression on the king, that he was heard to say, "I would some would do me the good service to bring Cromwell to me, alive or dead."

A party began now to be formed in the parliament who seemed to be dissatisfied with their old generals, thinking them too much inclined to a peace with the king. On this account they wished to have army new-modelled; and, that their old friends might be the more civilly dismissed from their posts, they passed the self-denying ordinance, whereby all members of parliament were incapacitated from holding posts in the army. Cromwell was a great promoter of this measure, and spoke in favour of it; nevertheless he had interest to be exempted from the operation of it, for he not only continued his command, but was made soon after lieutenant-general of the horse.

In the great and decisive battle of Naseby, in 1645, the king's own cabinet was taken, wherein were found his most secret letters to the queen and others: these, which shewed the king's duplicity in a strong light, were some of them published with remarks, and served to help the cause of the parliament very much in the minds of the people.

While the king was in the hands of the army, another story is told of Charles's duplicity, which caused Cromwell entirely to desert his cause, though previous to that it is said he intended (under great limitations) to place him on the throne again. During the treaty it was said, that Cromwell made a private article with the

king, "That, if his majesty closed with the army's proposals, he should be made earl of Essex, knight of the garter, and first captain of the horse-guards; and Ireton was to be made lieutenant of Ireland." Other honours and employments were likewise stipulated for Cromwell's family and friends. But the king was so uxorious, that he would do nothing without the advice of his queen, who not liking the proposal, he sent her a letter to acquaint her, "That, though he assented to the army's proposals, yet, if by so doing he could procure peace, it would be easier then to take off Cromwell, than now he was the head that governed the army." Cromwell, who had his spies upon every motion of the king, intercepted this letter, and thereupon resolved never to trust him more.

Of this letter, which is said to have been the cause of the death of Charles, the author of the *Richardsoniana* has preserved the following very curious account. "Lord Oxford declared that he had seen, and had in his hands, an original letter that King Charles the First wrote to the queen, in answer to one of her's that had been intercepted, and then forwarded to him; wherein she reproached him for having made those villains too great concessions; (viz. that Cromwell should be lord-lieutenant of Ireland for life without account; that that kingdom should be in the hands of the party, with an army there kept which should know no head but the lieutenant; that Cromwell should have a garter, &c.) That in this letter of the king's it was said, that she should leave him to manage, who was better informed of all circumstances than she could be; but she might be entirely easy as to whatever concessions he should make them, for that he should know in due time how to deal with the rogues, who instead of a silken garter should be fitted with a hempen cord. So the letter ended:—which answer, as they waited for, so they intercepted accordingly, and it determined his fate. This letter Lord Oxford said he had offered 500*l.* for."

Agreeable enough to this account is the curious relation given by the author



author of the Memoirs of the Lord Broghill, of a discourse that passed between the said lord and Cromwell, while he was in Ireland, in 1650. He informs us, that the Lord Broghill, being in discourse with Cromwell and Ireton, fell upon the subject of the king's death: Cromwell said, "If he [the king] had followed his own mind, and had had trusty servants about him, he had fooled them all:" adding, "We had once an inclination to have come to terms with him, but something that happened drew us off from it." The Lord Broghill, seeing they were both in a good humour, asked them, "Why, if they were inclined to close with him, they had not done it?" Upon which Cromwell frankly told him, "The reason of our inclination to come to terms with him, was, we found the Scots and Presbyterians began to be more powerful than we, and were strenuously endeavouring to strike up an agreement with the king, and leave us in the lurch: wherefore we thought to prevent them by offering more reasonable conditions: but, while we were busied with these thoughts, there came a letter to us from one of our spies, who was of the king's bed-chamber, acquainting us, that our final doom was decreed that day: what it was he could not tell, but a letter was gone to the queen with the contents of it, which letter was sewed up in the skirt of a saddle, and the bearer of it would come with the saddle upon his head about ten o'clock the following night, to the Blue-Boar-inn, in Holborn, where he was to take horse for Dover. The messenger knew nothing of the saddle, but some one in Dover did. We were then at Windsor; and immediately upon the receipt of the letter from our spy, Ireton and I resolved to take a trusty fellow with us, and in troopers habits to go to the inn; which accordingly we did, and set our man at the gate of the inn to watch. The gate was shut, but the wicket open, and our man staid to give us notice when any one came a saddle upon his head. Ireton and I sat in a box near the wicket, and called for a can of beer, and then another, drinking in that disguise till

ten o'clock, when our centinel gave us notice that the man with the saddle was come; upon which we immediately rose; and, when the man was leading out his horse saddled, we came up to him with our swords drawn, and told him we were to search all who went in and out there; but, as he looked like an honest fellow, we would only search his saddle; which we did, and found the letter we looked for; and, opening it, read the contents, in which the king acquainted the queen, he was now courted by both the factions, the Scots Presbyterians and the army; that which of them bade fairest for him should have him; that he thought he should close sooner with the Scots than the other. Upon which we speeded to Windsor, and, finding we were not likely to have any tolerable terms from the king, we immediately resolved to ruin him."

When it was moved in the house, to proceed capitally against the King, Cromwell stood up and declared, "That if any man moved this upon design, he should think him the greatest traitor in the world; but, since *Providence* and *necessity* had cast them upon it, he would pray God to bless their counsels, though he was not provided on the sudden to give them counsel." When it was determined to bring the king to trial, all his friends, at home and abroad, gave him for lost; and yet they did not neglect to make their utmost efforts to save him. The Prince of Wales, and Prince of Orange, daily sent, as agents, the kindred and relations of Cromwell, Ireton, and other judges appointed to try his majesty, with commission to offer any thing, and to make any promises, to save his life, or at least to put off the judgment. The Scots at the same time sent commissioners in great haste to declare and protest against this unheard-of attempt. These commissioners, as Bishop Burnet informs us, came to Cromwell to argue the matter with him. They highly blamed indeed many of the king's actions, and charged him with very great crimes: but still they insisted on that clause in the covenant, whereby they solemnly swore they would be faithful in the preservation

preservation of his majesty's person : upon which they observed, on what conditions Scotland, as well as the parliament of England, had engaged in the war; and what solemn declarations of their zeal and duty to his majesty they had all along made; which would now be found, to the scandal and reproach of the Christian name, to have been false pretences, if, now the king was in their hands, they should proceed to extremities. Hereupon Cromwell held a long discourse with them concerning the nature of the regal power; and declared it was his opinion, that a breach of trust in a king deserved greater punishment than any other crime. And then, as to their covenant, he said, they swore to preserve the king's person in defence of the true religion; so that if it was manifest, that the establishing of the true religion was hindered by the king, so that it could not be effected without removing him, then their oaths could not oblige them to the preserving him any longer. He further said, they were bound by their covenant to bring all malignants, incendiaries, and enemies to the cause, to condign punishment; and was not this to be executed impartially? What were all those on whom public justice had taken place, especially those who suffered for joining with Montrose, but small offenders, who had acted by commission from the king, who was therefore the principal, and so the most guilty? Thus Cromwell had manifestly the better of them at their own weapons, and upon their own principles.

After the king was condemned, though there appeared little hope of saving his life, yet still endeavours were not wanting for that purpose. The following story is told on this occasion:—That Colonel John Cromwell, a near relation of Oliver, came to town about this time, with credential letters from the states of Holland, whereto was added a blank, with the king's signet, and another of the prince's, both confirmed by the states, for Cromwell to set down his own conditions, if he would now save his majesty's life. The colonel went directly to his kinsman's house,

who was retired and shut up in his chamber, with an order to let none know he was at home; so that it was with much difficulty he obtained admittance, after he had told who he was. Having mutually saluted each other, the colonel desired to speak a few words with him in private; and began with much freedom to set before him the heinousness of the fact, then about to be committed, and with what detestation it was looked upon abroad, telling him, that of all men living, he could never have imagined he would have had any hand in it, who in his hearing had protested so much for the king. To this Cromwell answered, "It was not he, but the army; and, though he did once say some such words, yet now times were altered, and Providence seemed to order things otherwise." And it is said, he added, "That he had prayed and fasted for the king, but no return that way was yet made to him." Upon this, the colonel stepped a little back, and suddenly shut the door, which made Cromwell apprehend he was going to be assassinated; but the other, pulling out his papers, said to him, "Cousin, this is no time to trifle with words: see here, it is now in your own power not only to make yourself, but your family, relations, and posterity, happy and honourable for ever; otherwise, as they have changed their name before from Williams to Cromwell, so now they must be forced to change it again; for this fact will bring such an ignominy upon the whole generation of them, that no time will be able to deface." At this Cromwell paused a little, and then said, "Cousin, I desire you would give me till night to consider of it, and do you go to your inn, and not to bed, till you hear from me." The colonel did accordingly, and about one in the morning a messenger came to tell him, "He might go to rest, and expect no other answer to carry to the prince; for the council of officers had been seeking God (a phrase very much in use at that time), as he also had done the same, and it was resolved by them all, that the king must die."

After



After the execution of the king, the government of England was declared to be a common-wealth; and the next year, 1649, Cromwell, was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland, which kingdom he entirely reduced, and then returned in triumph to England, having appointed Ireton his deputy. After a boisterous passage, he landed at Bristol, where the great guns were fired thrice over at his arrival, and he was welcomed with many other demonstrations of joy. Hence, without delay, he posted for London; and on Hounslow Heath, was met by the Lord-General Fairfax, many members of parliament and officers of the army, and multitudes of people. Being thus attended, he proceeded on, and, coming to Hyde Park was saluted with great guns, &c. Thus in a triumphant manner he entered the city of London, amidst a croud of attendants, friends, citizens, &c. and was received with great demonstrations of joy. Being conducted to the Cockpit, which had been prepared for his reception, the lord mayor and aldermen of London, and many other persons of quality, paid their visits to him, congratulating the safe arrival of his excellency, and expressing their own and the nation's great obligations to him. Having resumed his place in parliament, the speaker in an elegant speech gave him the thanks of the house, for the great and faithful services he had performed for the common-wealth in the nation of Ireland.

The next year, Charles II. being arrived in Scotland, Cromwell advised an immediate invasion of that kingdom; which Gen. Fairfax being averse to, laid down his commission, and Cromwell was made general in his room.

Cromwell soon after set out for Scotland, where he defeated the royalists in many skirmishes, but was at last reduced to great straits, from which he was relieved by the imprudence of the Scotch leaders, of which he took immediate advantage, and totally routed them in the battle of Dunbar; soon after which he took Edinburgh and Leith. The king's army, retreating before the victorious

Cromwell, were at length totally overthrown in the battle of Worcester. Cromwell staid no longer at Worcester than to see the walls of it levelled with the ground, and the dikes filled with earth, thereby to curb the disaffection of the inhabitants, and to prevent their attempting to secure any enemy for the future. This done, he marched up in a triumphant manner to London, driving four or five thousand prisoners like sheep before him. Beyond Aylesbury, he was met by four commissioners from the parliament, whom they sent to pay him all the marks of honour and esteem. When he came to Acton, he was solemnly met by the speaker, and the rest of the members council and of state; and soon after by the lord mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, and many persons of quality, with the militia and multitudes of people; who welcomed him with loud shouts and acclamations, and several volleys of great and small shot. Whitelock says, he carried himself with great affability, and seeming humility; and in all his discourses about the business of Worcester, would seldom mention any thing of himself, but of the gallantry of the officers and soldiers, and gave all the glory of the action unto God. After some small repose, on the 16th of September, he took his place in parliament, where the speaker made a speech to him, congratulating his return after so many worthy achievements, and giving him the thanks of the house for his great and faithful services to the common-wealth. On the same day, he with his chief officers, was feasted in the city, with all possible state and pomp. And soon after two acts were drawn up, that were much to his honour; one for a solemn thanksgiving-day, and the other for a yearly observation of the third day of September, in all the three kingdoms, with a narrative of the grounds thereof. The parliament settled four thousand pounds a year upon him, out of the estates of the Duke of Buckingham and the Marquis of Worcester, besides two thousand five hundred pounds per annum formerly granted.

Cromwell

Cromwell and his officers, in order to bring about their designs, were now daily complaining of the grievances from the long parliament, and seemed very zealous, upon the common pretences of right and justice, and public liberty, to put a period to their session; "Which if they would not shortly do themselves, the army and people must do it for them."

The parliament being very sensible of these proceedings, a great debate arose thereupon in the house; where several of the members, out of justice, reason, or a foreseen necessity, appeared to be for a dissolution, and a new representative to be chosen; but in the end it was declared, that the dissolution of the parliament was too high a matter for any private persons to meddle with. Cromwell perceiving how unwilling they were to part with their power and authority, which they had so long enjoyed, on the 19th of April held a consultation with the chief of his friends in the parliament and army, at his lodgings in Whitehall, to consider of some expedient for the present carrying on of the government of the commonwealth, and putting a period to the parliament. Some few, particularly Sir Thomas Widdrington and Commissioner Whitelock, declared what a dangerous thing it was to dissolve the parliament, and how difficult it would be to erect any other form of government: but the general and most of his officers, with several members of the house, delivered their opinion, "That it was necessary to take some new measures, and that it was not fit the present assembly of parliament should be permitted to prolong their own power." The conference lasted till late at night, when, without coming to any conclusion, the meeting was adjourned to the next morning. Most of them being then again met, the point in debate was, "Whether forty persons, or about that number, of parliament-men and officers of the army, should be nominated by the parliament, and impowered for managing the affairs of the commonwealth, till a new parliament should meet; and so the present parliament be forthwith dissolved." The lord-general being informed, during

this debate, that the parliament was sitting, and that it was hoped they would put a period to themselves, which would be the most honourable dissolution for them; he thereupon broke off the meeting, and the members of parliament that were with him left him at his lodgings and went to the house; where, contrary to their expectation, instead of coming to any resolutions of immediately dissolving themselves, they found them in debate of an act, by which the present parliament was to be continued above a year and a half longer, and then to be dissolved. Colonel Ingoldby came back to the general, and informed him what the house was upon: at which the general, who expected they should have meddled with no other business but putting an immediate period to their own sitting without any more delay, was so enraged, that he immediately commanded some of the officers to fetch a party of soldiers (to the number of three hundred), with which marching directly to Westminster, he placed some of them at the door, some in the lobby, and others on the stairs. Himself going into the house, first addressed himself to his friend St. John, and told him, "That he then came to do that which grieved him to the very soul, and what he had earnestly with tears prayed to God against: nay, that he had rather be torn in pieces than do it: but that there was a necessity laid upon him therein, in order to the glory of God, and the good of the nation." Then he sat down, and heard their debates for some time on the fore-mentioned act; after which, calling to Major-general Harrison, who was on the other side of the house, to come to him, he told him, that he judged the parliament ripe for a dissolution, and this to be the time of doing it. Harrison answered, "Sir, the work is very great and dangerous, therefore I desire you seriously to consider of it, before you engage in it." "You say well," replied the general; and thereupon sat still for about a quarter of an hour; and then, the question for passing the said act being put, he said again to Harrison, "This is the time, I must do it." And so, standing



ing up on a sudden, he bade the speaker leave the chair, and told the house, "That they had sat long enough, unless they had done more good; that some of them were whore-masters, (looking then towards Harry Martin and Sir Peter Wentworth;) that others of them were drunkards, and some corrupt and unjust men, and scandalous to the profession of the gospel; and that it was not fit they should sit as a parliament any longer, and therefore he must desire them to go away. He charged them with not having a heart to do any thing for the public good, and espousing the interest of presbytery and the lawyers, who were the supporters of tyranny and oppression; and accused them of an intention to perpetuate themselves in power." When some of the members began to speak, he stepped into the midst of the house, and said, "Come, come, I will put an end to your prating;" then, walking up and down the house, he cried out, "You are no parliament, I say you are no parliament;" and, stamping with his feet, he bade them for shame be gone, and give place to honest men.— Upon this signal the soldiers entered the house, and he bade one of them take away that bauble, meaning the mace; and Harrison taking the speaker by the arm, he came down. Then (as Ludlow informs us) the general addressing himself again to the members, who were about a hundred, said, "It is you that have forced me to this; for I have fought the Lord night and day, that he would rather slay me than put me upon doing of this work." And then, seizing on all their papers, he ordered the soldiers to see the house cleared of all members; and, having caused the doors to be locked up, went away to Whitehall. "Thus, as Whitelock observes, it pleased God, that this assembly, famous throughout the world for its undertakings, actions, and successes, having subdued all their enemies, were themselves overthrown and ruined by their servants; and those whom they had raised now pulled down their masters: an example never to be forgotten, and scarcely to be paralleled in any history! By

which all persons may be instructed, how uncertain and subject to change all worldly affairs are; how apt to fall when we think them highest."

The formidable body at Westminster being thus forcibly dissolved, the lord-general and his party were very busy in consulting how to manage the government, which by this means was fallen into their hands. This single action made Cromwell master of three kingdoms; for, though he did not take upon himself the title of Protector till several months after, yet his power was in effect the same, from the very moment that he succeeded in this bold undertaking.

Though the protector proceeded in a very arbitrary manner against those who contested his authority; yet in all other cases, where the life of his jurisdiction was not concerned, he seemed to have a great reverence for the law, and the constitution, rarely interposing between party and party; and, to do him justice, there appeared in his government many things that were truly great and praise-worthy. Justice, as well distributive as commutative, was by him restored almost to its ancient grace and splendor, the judges executing their office without covetousness, according to law and equity, and the laws, except some few, where himself was immediately concerned, being permitted to have their full force upon all, without impediment or delay. Mens manners, outwardly at least, became likewise reformed, either by removing the incentives to luxury, or by means of the ancient laws now revived, and put in execution. There was a strict discipline kept in his court, where drunkenness, whoredom, and extortion, were either banished or severely rebuked. Trade began again to flourish and prosper, and most things to put on a happy and promising aspect. The protector also shewed a great regard to the advancement of learning, and was a great encourager of it. The university of Oxford, in particular, acknowledged his respect to them, in continuing their chancellor, and bestowing on the public library there four and twenty Greek manuscripts, and also munificently allowing

allowing an hundred pounds a year to a divinity reader. He also ordered a scheme to be drawn for founding and endowing a college at Durham, for the convenience of the northern students.

About the year 1655, a design was formed by Cromwell, of settling the Jews again in this nation; and Manasseh Ben-Israel, a great rabbi, came over and made his stated proposals, and had a conference upon them, for re-admitting that people to exercise trade and worship in England. But the design was so violently opposed, that this treaty came to nothing. It is said the protector had the promise of 200,000*l.* from the Jews, in case he procured this toleration for them; which made him so earnest to bring it about: but Bishop Burnet informs us, that he entered into this treaty with them for the sake of intelligence. His words are these:—"When he understood what dealers the Jews were every where in that trade that depends on news, the advancing money upon high or low interest in proportion to the risque they run, or the gain to be made as the times might turn, and in the buying and selling of the actions of money so advanced, he, more upon that account than in compliance with the principle of toleration, brought a company of them over to England, and gave them leave to build a synagogue. All the while that he was negotiating this, they were sure and good spies for him, especially with relation to Spain and Portugal." Upon this the bishop tells this story, which he had from the Lord Broghill, who had then become Earl of Orrery: that, as that earl was once walking with Cromwell in one of the galleries of Whitehall, a man almost in rags appeared in view; upon which he immediately dismissed the earl, and took that person with him into his closet; who told him of a great sum of money, that the Spaniards were sending over in a Dutch man of war, to pay their army in Flanders; and also whereabouts in the ship the said money was deposited. The protector then immediately sent an express to Smith (afterwards Sir Jeremy

Smith), who lay in the Downs, informing him, "That within a day or two such a Dutch ship would pass the Channel, which he must search for the Spanish money, which was contraband goods," England being then at war with Spain. Accordingly, when the ship passed by Dover, Smith sent and demanded leave to search him. The Dutch captain returned him this answer, "That none but his masters might search him:" upon which, Smith sent him word again, "That he had set up an hour-glass, and, if he did not submit to the search before it was run out, he would force him." The captain seeing it was in vain to struggle, submitted in time, and so all the money was found. And the next time his highness saw the Lord Orrery, he told him, he had his intelligence from that seemingly forlorn man he saw him go to some days before.

Next year a debate came on in the parliament-house about changing Cromwell's title of Protector into that of King. A new instrument was drawn up, and read in the house, having a blank left for the title of the single person, and two other blanks for two houses of parliament. This was brought in by Mr. Pack, a rich alderman of London, who was supposed to be very much in the court interest; and, when it came to be debated, it was sharply opposed by the soldiers' party in the house; yet, when it came to be put to the question, they carried all before them, and grew so bold as to move, "That the blank left for the insertion of the title of the chief magistrate might be filled up with the name of King:" which motion, though very much opposed by Lieutenant-general Fleetwood, was likewise carried, and the name voted, together with the filling up the two blanks left for the two houses, with the words, House of Commons, and, Other House.

This done, on the 4th of April they presented this writing to the lord protector, which was filed, the humble petition and advice of the parliament of England, Scotland, and Ireland, to his highness; at which time, the speaker Sir Thomas Widdrington



drington made a speech to him, recommending the title and office of a king, as settled here with Christianity itself, approved and retained by our ancestors, and every way fitted to the laws and temper of the people of England. The protector, however inclinable he was to accept of this offer, yet, finding it to be against the humour and bent of the army, he finally determined to refuse it.

Upon this the parliament voted, that he should enjoy the title and authority he had already, which was also in many particulars enlarged by a new instrument prepared on purpose. It was also determined that he should have a solemn inauguration, which was accordingly performed on the 26th of June, 1657, in presence of all the foreign ambassadors and ministers. Westminster-hall was prepared for this solemnity, and adorned as sumptuously as it could be for a coronation. At the upper end was an ascent raised, where a chair and canopy of state were placed, and a table with another chair for the speaker; seats were also built for the members of parliament, the judges and officers, and for the lord-mayor and aldermen of London. The ceremony of the inauguration is too long to be detailed here, as we have already exceeded the limits we had proposed to ourselves for this article; suffice it to say, that Cromwell had now reached the height of his ambition and the summit of human greatness.

Upon the French king's entering into an agreement with the Protector of England, King Charles with his family was obliged to leave France, and retire to Cologne; where having resided about two years and a half, he this year, concluding a treaty with the catholic king, repaired to Bruges, in Flanders, where he found a handsome accommodation for himself and his small court. About this time, among other methods he used in order to his restoration, was this: The Dukes of Lauderdale, being a particular friend and acquaintance of Cromwell's, was employed to make a private offer and proposal to him, "That, if he would suffer Charles to mount the throne, he would send

him a blank paper, for him to write his own terms and limitations, and settle what power and riches he pleased on himself, family, and friends." Cromwell declined the negotiation, with this shrewd sentence: "If Charles Stuart can forgive me all I have done against him and his family, he does not deserve to wear the crown of England."

But, as all worldly glory and prosperity must have an end, so our protector's greatness, which expired only with his life, came to a period on the third of September, 1658. On this day, on the anniversary of which he had twice triumphed for two of his greatest victories (at Dunbar and at Worcester), he expired about three in the afternoon; on which day there happened the most violent storm of wind that had ever been known.

Thus the famous Oliver Cromwell, after so many great actions, so many toils and fatigues, and so many plots and conspiracies against his life, at last died quietly in his bed. He expired in the sixtieth year of his age; five years, four months, and fourteen days, after the dissolution of the long parliament; four years, eight months, and eighteen days, after he had been declared protector by the instrument of government; and only one year, three months, and nine days, after his being confirmed in that office by the humble petition and advice.

His character may be pretty well gathered from the preceding pages, and will be farther exemplified in the Wars of England, annexed.—As to person, he had a manly stern look, and was of an active healthful constitution, able to endure the greatest toil and fatigue. He affected, for the most part, a plainness in his clothes; but always appeared with great magnificence on public occasions. He was temperate in his diet; though sometimes he would drink freely, yet he never drank to excess. He was moderate in all other pleasures; and, after his first reformation, free from all visible immoralities, and seemed to be a great enemy to vice and a lover of virtue, always taking care to discountenance the former and encourage the latter.

## HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 236.

THE destruction of the tea at Boston, which happened in November 1773, was the immediate prelude to the disasters attending civil discord. Government, finding themselves every where insulted and despised, resolved to enforce their authority by all possible means; and, as Boston had been the principal scene of the riots and outrages, it was determined to punish that city in an exemplary manner. Parliament was acquainted by a message from his majesty with the undutiful behaviour of the city of Boston, as well as of all the colonies; recommending at the same time the most vigorous and spirited exertions to reduce them to obedience. The parliament in its address promised a ready compliance; and indeed the Americans, by their outrageous behaviour, had now lost many of their partisans. It was proposed to lay a fine on the town of Boston equal to the price of the tea which had been destroyed, and to shut up its port by armed vessels until the refractory spirit of the inhabitants should be subdued; which it was thought must quickly yield, as a total stop would thus be put to their trade. The bill was strongly opposed on the same grounds that the other had been; and it was predicted, that, instead of having any tendency to reconcile or subdue the Americans, it would infallibly exasperate them beyond any possibility of reconciliation. The petitions against it, presented by the colony's agent, pointed out the same consequence in the strongest terms, and in the most positive manner declared that the Americans never would submit to it; but such was the infatuation attending every rank and degree of men, that it never was imagined the Americans would dare to resist the parent state openly, but would in the end submit implicitly to her commands. In this confidence a third bill was proposed for the impartial administration of justice on such persons as might be employed in the suppression of riots and tumults in the province of Massachusetts Bay. By this act it was provided, that should

any persons acting in that capacity be indicted for murder, and not able to obtain a fair trial in the province, they might be sent by the governor to England, or to some other colony, if necessary, to be tried for the supposed crime.

These three bills having passed so easily, the ministry proposed a fourth, relative to the government of Canada; which, it was said, had not yet been settled on any proper plan. By this bill the extent of that province was greatly enlarged; its affairs were put under the direction of a council in which Roman Catholics were to be admitted; the Roman Catholic clergy were secured in their possessions and the usual perquisites from those of their own profession. The council above-mentioned were to be appointed by the crown, to be removeable at its pleasure; and to be invested with every legislative power excepting that of taxation.

No sooner were these laws made known in America, than they cemented the union of the colonies almost beyond any possibility of dissolving it. The assembly of Massachusetts Bay had passed a vote against the judges accepting salaries from the crown, and put the question, Whether they would accept them as usual from the general assembly? Four answered in the affirmative; but Peter Oliver the chief justice refused. A petition against him, and an accusation, were brought before the governor; but the latter refused the accusation, and declined to interfere in the matter; but, as they still insisted on what they called justice against Mr. Oliver, the governor thought proper to put an end to the matter by dissolving the assembly.

In this situation of affairs a new alarm was occasioned by the news of the port-bill. This had been totally unexpected, and was received with the most extravagant expressions of displeasure among the populace; and while these continued, the new governor, Gen. Gage, arrived from England. He had been chosen to this office on account of his being



being well acquainted in America, and generally agreeable to the people; but human wisdom could not now point out a method by which the flame could be allayed. The first act of his office as governor was to remove the assembly to Salem, a town seventeen miles distant, in consequence of the late act. When this was intimated to the assembly, they replied by requesting him to appoint a day of public humiliation for deprecating the wrath of heaven, but met with a refusal. When met at Salem, they passed a resolution, declaring the necessity of a general congress composed of delegates from all the provinces, in order to take the affairs of the colonies at large into consideration; and five gentlemen, remarkable for their opposition to the British measures, were chosen to represent that of Massachusetts Bay. They then proceeded with all expedition to draw up a declaration, containing a detail of the grievances they laboured under, and the necessity of exerting themselves against lawless power; they set forth the disregard shewn to their petitions, and the attempts of Great Britain to destroy their ancient constitution; and concluded with exhorting the inhabitants of the colony to obstruct, by every method in their power, such evil designs; recommending at the same time a total renunciation of every thing imported from Great Britain till a redress of grievances could be procured.

Intelligence of this declaration was carried to the governor on the very day that it was completed; on which he dissolved the assembly. This was followed by an address from the inhabitants of Salem in favour of those of Boston, and concluding with these remarkable words: "By shutting up the port of Boston, some imagine that the course of trade might be turned hither, and to our benefit; but nature, in the formation of our harbour, forbids our becoming rivals in commerce with that convenient mart; and, were it otherwise, we must be dead to every idea of justice, lost to all feelings of humanity, could we indulge one thought to seize on wealth, and raise our fortunes on the ruin of our suffering neighbours."

It had been fondly hoped by the ministerial party at home, that the advan-

tages which other towns of the colony might derive from the annihilation of the trade of Boston would make them readily acquiesce in the measure of shutting up that port, and rather rejoice in it than otherwise; but the words of the address above-mentioned seemed to preclude all hope of this kind; and subsequent transactions soon manifested it to be totally vain. No sooner did intelligence arrive of the remaining bills passed in the session of 1774, than the cause of Boston became the cause of all the colonies. The port-bill had already occasioned violent commotions throughout them all. It had been reprobated in provincial meetings, and resistance, even to the last, had been recommended against such oppression. In Virginia, the first of June, the day on which the port of Boston was to be shut up, was held as a day of humiliation, and a public intercession in favour of America was enjoined. The stile of the prayer enjoined at this time was, that "God would give the people one heart and one mind, firmly to oppose every invasion of the American rights." The Virginians, however, did not content themselves with acts of religion. They recommended in the strongest manner a general congress of all the colonies, as fully persuaded that an attempt to tax any colony in an arbitrary manner was in reality an attack upon the whole, and must ultimately end in the ruin of them all.

The provinces of New York and Pennsylvania, however, were less sanguine than the rest, being so closely connected in the way of trade with Great Britain, that the giving it up entirely appeared a matter of the most serious magnitude, and not to be thought of but after every other method had failed. The intelligence of the remaining bills respecting Boston, however, spread a fresh alarm throughout the continent, and fixed those who had seemed to be the most wavering. The proposal of giving up all commercial intercourse with Britain was again proposed; contributions for the inhabitants of Boston were raised in every quarter; and they every day received addresses commending them for the heroic courage with which they sustained their calamity.

The Bostonians on their part were not wanting in their endeavours to promote the general cause. An agreement was framed, which, in imitation of former times, they called a Solemn League and Covenant. By this the subscribers most religiously bound themselves to break off all communication with Britain after the expiration of the month of August ensuing, until the obnoxious acts were repealed; at the same time they engaged neither to purchase nor use any goods imported after that time, and to renounce all connection with those who did, or who refused to subscribe to this covenant; threatening to publish the names of the refractory, which at this time was a punishment by no means to be despised. Agreements of a similar kind were almost instantaneously entered into throughout all America. General Gage indeed attempted to counteract the covenant by a proclamation, wherein it was declared an illegal and traitorous combination, threatening with the pains of law such as subscribed or countenanced it. But matters were too far gone for his proclamations to have any effect. The Americans retorted the charge of illegality on his own proclamation, and insisted that the law allowed subjects to meet in order to consider of their grievances, and associate for relief from oppression.

Preparations were now made for holding the general congress so often proposed. Philadelphia, as being the most central and considerable town, was pitched upon for the place of its meeting. The delegates of whom it was to be composed were chosen by the representatives of each province, and were in number from two to seven for each colony, though no province had more than one vote. The first congress, which met at Philadelphia in the beginning of September 1774, consisted of fifty-one delegates. The novelty and importance of the meeting excited an universal attention; and their transactions were such as could not but tend to render them respectable.

The first act of congress was an approbation of the conduct of Massachusetts Bay, and an exhortation to continue in the same spirit with which they had begun. Supplies for the suffering inhabitants (whom indeed the operation

of the port-bill had reduced to great distress) were strongly recommended; and it was declared, that, in case of attempts to enforce the obnoxious acts by arms, all America should join to assist the town of Boston; and should the inhabitants be obliged, during the course of hostilities, to remove farther up the country, the losses they might sustain should be repaired at the public expence.

They next addressed General Gage by letter; in which, having stated the grievances of the people of Massachusetts's colony, they informed him of the fixed and unalterable determination of all the other provinces to support their brethren, and to oppose the British acts of parliament; that they themselves were appointed to watch over the liberties of America; and intreated him to desist from military operations, lest such hostilities might be brought on as would frustrate all hopes of reconciliation with the parent state.

The next step was to publish a declaration of their rights. These they summed up in the rights belonging to Englishmen; and particularly insisted, that as their distance rendered it impossible for them to be represented in the British parliament, their provincial assemblies, with the governor appointed by the king, constituted the only legislative power within each province. They would, however, consent to such acts of parliament as were evidently calculated merely for the regulation of commerce, and securing to the parent state the benefits of the American trade; but would never allow that they could impose any tax on the colonies, for the purpose of raising a revenue, without their consent. They proceeded to reprobate the intention of each of the new acts of parliament; and insisted on all the rights they had enumerated as being unalienable, and what none could deprive them of. The Canada act they particularly pointed out as being extremely inimical to the colonies, by whose assistance it had been conquered; and they termed it "An act for establishing the Roman Catholic religion in Canada, abolishing the equitable system of English laws, and establishing a tyranny there." They further declared in favour of a non-importation and non-consumption of British goods until the



the acts were repealed by which duties were imposed upon tea, coffee, wine, sugar, and molasses, imported into America, as well as the Boston port-act, and the three others passed in the preceding session of parliament. The new regulations against the importation and consumption of British commodities were then drawn up with great solemnity; and they concluded with returning the warmest thanks to those members of parliament who had with so much zeal, though without any success, opposed the obnoxious acts of parliament.

Their next proceedings were to frame a petition to the king, an address to the British nation, and another to the colonies; all of which were so much in the usual strain of American language for some time past, that it is needless to enter into any particular account of them. It is sufficient to say that they were all drawn up in a masterly manner, and ought to have impressed the people of this country with a more favourable idea of the Americans than they could at that time be induced to entertain.

All this time the disposition of the people had corresponded with the warmest wishes of congress. The first of June had been kept as a fast, not only throughout Virginia where it was first proposed, but through the whole continent. Contributions for the distressed of Boston had been raised throughout America, and people of all ranks seemed to be particularly touched with them. Even those who seemed to be most likely to derive advantages from them took no opportunity, as has been already instanced in the case of Salem. The inhabitants of Marblehead also shewed a noble example of magnanimity in the present case. Though situated in the neighbourhood of Boston, and most likely to derive benefit from their distresses, they did not attempt to take any advantage, but generously offered the use of their harbour to the Bostonians, as well as their wharfs and warehouses, free of all expence. In the mean time the British forces at Boston were continually increasing in number, which greatly augmented the general jealousy and disaffection; the country were ready to rise at a moment's warning; and the expe-

riement was made by giving a false alarm that the communication between the town and country was to be cut off, in order to reduce the former by famine to a compliance with the acts of parliament. On this intelligence the country people assembled in great numbers, and could not be satisfied till they had sent messengers into the city to enquire into the truth of the report. These messengers were enjoined to inform the town's people, that, if they should be so pusillanimous as to make a surrender of their liberties, the province would not think itself bound by such examples; and that Britain, by breaking their original charter, had annulled the contract subsisting between them, and left them to act as they thought proper.

The people in every other respect manifested their inflexible determination to adhere to the plan they had so long followed. The new counsellors and judges were obliged to resign their offices, in order to preserve their lives and properties from the fury of the multitude. In some places they shut up the avenues to the court-houses; and, when required to make way for the judges, replied, that they knew of none but such as were appointed by the ancient usage and custom of the province. Every where they manifested the most ardent desire of learning the art of war; and every individual who could bear arms, was most assiduous in procuring them, and learning their exercise.

Matters at last proceeded to such an height, that General Gage thought proper to fortify the neck of land which joins the town of Boston to the continent. This, though undoubtedly a prudent measure in his situation, was exclaimed against by the Americans in the most vehement manner; but the general, instead of giving ear to their remonstrances, deprived them of all power of acting against himself, by seizing the provincial powder, ammunition, and military stores, at Cambridge and Charlestown. This excited such indignation, that it was with the utmost difficulty the people could be restrained from marching to Boston and attacking the troops. Even in the town itself, the company of cadets that used to attend him disbanded themselves,

selves, and returned the standard he had as usual presented them with on his accession to the government. This was occasioned by his having deprived the celebrated John Hancock, afterwards president of the congress, of his commission as colonel of the cadets. A similar instance happened of a provincial colonel having accepted a seat in the new council; upon which twenty-four officers of his regiment resigned their commissions in one day.

In the mean time a meeting was held of the principal inhabitants of the towns adjacent to Boston. The purport of this was publicly to renounce all obedience to the late acts of parliament, and to form an engagement to indemnify such as should be prosecuted on that account; the members of the new council were declared violators of the rights of their country; all ranks and degrees were exhorted to learn the use of arms; and the receivers of the public revenue were ordered not to deliver it into the treasury, but retain it in their own hands till the constitution should be restored, or a provincial congress dispose of it otherwise.

A remonstrance against the fortifications on Boston Neck was next prepared; in which, however, they still pretended their unwillingness to proceed to any hostile measures; asserting only as usual their firm determination not to submit to the acts of parliament they had already so much complained of. The governor, to restore tranquillity, if possible, called a general assembly; but so many of the council had resigned their seats, that he was induced to countermand its sitting by proclamation. This measure, however, was deemed illegal; the assembly met at Salem; and, after waiting a day for the governor, voted themselves into a provincial congress, of which Mr. Hancock was chosen president. A committee was instantly appointed, who waited on the governor with a remonstrance concerning the fortifications on Boston Neck; but nothing of consequence took place, both parties mutually exterminating each other. The winter was now coming on, and the governor, to avoid quartering the soldiers upon the inhabitants, proposed to erect barracks for them; but the select men

of Boston compelled the workmen to desert. Carpenters were sent for to New York, but they were refused; and it was with the utmost difficulty that he could procure winter-lodgings for his troops. Nor was the difficulty less in procuring clothes; as the merchants of New York told him, that "they would never supply any article for the benefit of men sent as enemies to their country."

This disposition, known to be almost universal throughout the continent, was in the highest degree satisfactory to congress. Every one saw that the ensuing spring was to be the season of commencing hostilities, and the most indefatigable diligence was used by the colonies to be well provided against such a formidable enemy. A list of all the fencible men in each colony was made out, and especially of those who had served in the former war; of whom they had the satisfaction to find that two-thirds were still alive and fit to bear arms. Magazines of arms were collected, and money was provided for the payment of troops. The governors in vain attempted to put a stop to these proceedings by proclamations; the fatal period was now arrived; and the more the servants of government attempted to repress the spirit of the Americans, the more violent it appeared.

In the mean time the inhabitants of Boston were reduced to great distress. The British troops, now distinguished by the name of the enemy, were absolutely in possession of it; the inhabitants were kept as prisoners, and might be made accountable for the conduct of the whole colonies; and various measures were contrived to relieve the latter from such a disagreeable situation. Sometimes it was thought expedient to remove the inhabitants altogether; but this was impracticable without the governor's consent. It was then proposed to set fire to the town at once, after valuing the houses and indemnifying the proprietors; but this being found equally impracticable, it was resolved to wait some other opportunity, as the garrison were not very numerous, and, not being supplied with necessaries by the inhabitants, might soon be obliged to leave the place. The friends of British government indeed attempted to do something in opposition to the general



neral voice of the people; but after a few ineffectual meetings and resolutions they were utterly silenced, and obliged to yield to the superior number of their adversaries.

Matters had now proceeded so far that every idea of reconciliation or friendship with Britain was lost. The Americans, therefore, without ceremony, began to seize on the military stores and ammunition belonging to government. This first commenced at Newport in Rhode Island, where the inhabitants carried off forty pieces of cannon appointed for the protection of the place; and, on being asked the reason of this proceeding, they replied, that the people had seized them lest they should be made use of against themselves. After this the assembly met, and resolved that ammunition and warlike stores should be purchased with the public money.

New Hampshire followed the example of Rhode Island, and seized a small fort for the sake of the powder and military stores it contained. In Pennsylvania, however, a convention was held, which expressed an earnest desire of reconciliation with the mother-country; though, at the same time, in the strongest manner declaring, that they were resolved to take up arms in defence of their just rights, and defend to the last their opposition to the late acts of parliament; and the people were likewise exhorted to apply themselves with the greatest assiduity to the prosecution of such manufactures as were necessary for their defence and subsistence, such as salt, salt-petre, gunpowder, steel, &c. This was the universal voice of the colonies, New York only excepted: the assembly of that province, as yet ignorant of the fate of their last remonstrance, refused to concur with the other colonies in their determination to throw off the British yoke: their attachment, however, was very faint; and by the event it appeared, that a perseverance in the measures which the ministry had adopted was sufficient to unite them to the rest.

As the disturbances had originated in the province of Massachusetts Bay, and there continued all along with the greatest violence, so this was the pro-

vince where the first hostilities were formally commenced. In the beginning of February the provincial congress met at Cambridge; and, as no friends to Britain could now find admittance to that assembly, the only consideration was how to make proper preparations for war. Expertness in military discipline was recommended in the strongest manner, and several military institutions enacted; among which that of the *minute-men* was one of the most remarkable. These were chosen from the most active and expert among the militia; and their business was to keep themselves in constant readiness at the call of their officers: from which perpetual vigilance they derived their title.—It was now easily seen that a slight occasion would bring on hostilities, which could not but be attended with the most violent and certain destruction to the vanquished party; for both were so much exasperated by a long course of reproaches and literary warfare, that they seemed to be filled with the utmost inveteracy against each other.

On the 26th of February, General Gage, having been informed that a number of field-pieces had been brought to Salem, dispatched a party to seize them. Their road was obstructed by a river, over which was a draw-bridge. This the people had pulled up, and refused to let down: upon which the soldiers seized a boat to ferry them over; but the people cut out her bottom. Hostilities would immediately have commenced, had it not been for the interposition of a clergyman, who represented to the military on the one hand, the folly of opposing such numbers; and to the people on the other, that as the day was far spent the military could not execute their design, so that they might without any fear leave them the quiet possession of the draw-bridge. This was complied with; and the soldiers, after having remained for some time at the bridge, returned without executing their orders.

The next attempt, however, was attended with more serious consequences. General Gage, having been informed that a large quantity of ammunition

munition and military stores had been collected at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston, and where the provincial congress was sitting, sent a detachment, under the command of Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to destroy the stores, and, as was reported, to seize Messrs. Hancock and Adams, the leading men of the congress. They set out before day-break, on the 19th of April, marching with the utmost silence, and securing every one they met on the road, that they might not be discovered. But, notwithstanding all their care, the continual ringing of bells and firing of guns as they went along soon gave them notice that the country was alarmed. About five in the morning they had reached Lexington, fifteen miles from Boston, where the militia of the place were exercising. An officer called out to them to disperse; but some shots, it is said, being at that moment fired from a house in the neighbourhood, the military made a discharge, which killed and wounded several of the militia. The detachment then proceeded to Concord, where, having destroyed the stores, they were encountered by the Americans; and a scuffle ensued, in which several fell on both sides. The purpose of their expedition being thus accomplished, it was necessary for the king's troops to retreat, which they did through a continual fire kept upon them from Concord to Lexington. Here their ammunition was totally expended; and they would have been unavoidably cut off, had not a considerable reinforcement commanded by Lord Percy luckily met them. The Americans, however, continued their attack with great fury; and the British would still have been in the utmost danger, had it not been for two field pieces which Lord Percy had brought with him. By these the impetuosity of the Americans was checked, and the British made good their retreat to Boston with the loss of two hundred and fifty killed and wounded: that of the Americans was about sixty.

By this engagement the spirits of the Americans were so raised, that they meditated nothing less than the total expulsion of the British troops

from Boston. An army of 20,000 men was assembled, who formed a line of encampment from Roxbury to Mystic, through a space of about thirty miles; and here they were soon after joined by a large body of Connecticut troops, under General Putnam, an old officer of great bravery and experience. By this formidable force was the town of Boston now kept blocked up. General Gage, however, had so strongly fortified it, that the enemy, powerful as they were, durst not make an attack; while, on the other hand, his force was by far too insignificant to meet such an enemy in the field. But towards the end of May, a considerable reinforcement having arrived, with Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, he was soon enabled to attempt something of consequence; and this the boasts of the provincials, that they were besieging those who had been sent to subdue them, seemed to render necessary. Some skirmishes in the mean time happened in the islands lying off Boston harbour, in which the Americans had the advantage, and burnt an armed schooner, which her people had been obliged to abandon after she was left aground by the tide. Nothing decisive, however, took place till the 17th of June. In the neighbourhood of Charlestown, a place on the northern shore of the peninsula on which Boston stands, is an high ground, called Bunker's-hill, (or, as Mr. Morse informs us, Breed's-hill,) which overlooks and commands the whole town of Boston. In the night of the 16th the provincials took possession of this place: and worked with such indefatigable diligence, that, to the astonishment of their enemies, they had before day-light almost completed a redoubt, with a strong entrenchment reaching half a mile eastward, as far as the river Mystic. After this they were obliged to sustain a heavy and incessant fire from the ships and floating batteries with which Charlestown Neck was surrounded, as well as the cannon that could reach the place from Boston; in spite of which, however, they continued their work and finished it before mid-day. A considerable body of foot was then landed at the foot of Bunker's-hill, under



under the command of Generals Howe and Pigot; the former being appointed to attack the lines, and the latter the redoubt. The Americans, however, having the advantage of the ground, as well as of their intrenchments, poured down such incessant volleys as threatened the whole body with destruction; and General Howe was for a little time left almost alone, all his officers being killed or wounded. The provincials in the mean time had taken possession of Charlestown, so that General Pigot was obliged to contend with them in that place as well as in the redoubt. The consequence was, that he was overmatched; his troops were thrown into disorder; and he would in all probability have been defeated, had not General Clinton advanced to his relief: upon which the attack was renewed with such fury, that the provincials were driven beyond the neck that leads to Charlestown. In the heat of the engagement the British troops were obliged to set fire to Charlestown, which quickly obliged the provincials to yield after they were deprived of that shelter. The loss on the British side amounted to about one thousand, among whom were nineteen officers killed and seventy wounded; that of the Americans did not exceed five hundred.

The British troops claimed the victory in this engagement with justice, though it must be allowed that it was dearly bought; and the Americans boasted that the real advantages were on their side, as they had so much weakened the enemy, that they durst not afterwards venture out of their entrenchments. From the many advantages, however, which the Americans possessed, it is evident that the greatest display of valour was on the side of their enemies. The former were strongly entrenched, and most of their fortifications cannon proof; their soldiers were all chosen, and excellent marksmen, to whom muskets ready loaded were handed as fast as they were discharged; and when

one party was wearied, another came to their assistance, as was perceived by the spectators on the tops of the houses at Boston. Considering, however, that this was the first time the provincials had been in actual service, it must be owned they behaved with great spirit, and by no means merited the appellation of cowards, with which they were so often branded in Britain.

In other places the same determined spirit of resistance appeared on the part of the Americans. Lord North's conciliatory scheme was utterly rejected by the assemblies of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and afterwards in every other colony. The commencement of hostilities at Lexington determined the colony of New York, which had hitherto continued to waver, to unite with the rest; and, as the situation of New York rendered it unable to resist an attack from the sea, it was resolved, before the arrival of a British fleet, to secure the military stores, send off the women and children, and to set fire to the city if it was still found incapable of defence. The exportation of provisions was every where prohibited, particularly to the British fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, or to such colonies of America as should adhere to the British interest. Congress resolved on the establishment of an army, and of a large paper currency in order to support it. In the inland northern colonies, Colonels Easton and Ethan Allen, without receiving any orders from Congress, or communicating their design to any body, with a party of only two hundred and fifty men, surprised the forts of Crown Point, Ticonderago, and the rest that form a communication betwixt the colonies and Canada. On this occasion two hundred pieces of cannon fell into their hands, besides mortars and a large quantity of military stores, together with two armed vessels, and materials for the construction of others.

*(To be continued.)*

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

## LEONTO AND ALMERIA.

**T**HE superior virtue of Prince Albert had acquired him the love and reverence of his people. Though eminently valiant in the field, he was more attentive to the arts of peace. And such was his generosity, that the moment he sheathed his sword, he would stretch out the cordial hand of friendship to the man whom the welfare of his country had obliged him to encounter as a foe.

At an early age he married a princess virtuous as himself, and equally exalted in her understanding. But the choicest blessings of heaven are lent to man but a short season, lest the ethereal soul, which is winged for immortality, should be detached from the meditation of its promised glory. The third vernal sun, which had smiled upon their union, saw the arrow of death pierce the bosom of the beautiful Jugurtha. But she left to Albert a daughter, the care of whose infancy diverted his attention, and saved him from the horrors of despair.

After many years of uninterrupted peace, the ambition of a neighbouring prince prompted him to make an incursion on the territories of Albert. In violation of the faith of nations, he invaded the country without declaring war against its monarch, or assigning any motive for his depredations. The subjects of the unsuspecting sovereign, dreading no evil, cultivated their grounds in imagined security. But the trumpet of war affrighted many of the peaceful swains from their labours, and many were cut off in the very act of toiling for their families. In some provinces the inhabitants endeavoured to repel the invader, but their numbers were small and undisciplined, and they were soon overpowered. Resistance being faint, the progress of the hostile monarch became rapid, and Albert found himself surrounded in his capital by the armies of his vindictive neighbour.

The distressed Albert, and a few brave companions of his misfortunes, made a noble defence, yet they were at length obliged to yield to superior force. But, while the victor was entering the conquered city, a band of Albert's subjects without the walls, having devoted themselves to death and their country, fell upon the conquering troops, while an arrow, shot from the battlements of an adjoining tower, pierced the body of the invader, who instantly fell to the earth; but, being encompassed by such brave men as ought ever to surround a prince, they replaced and sustained him on his horse, while, with incredible intrepidity and boldness, they fought their way through opposing numbers, and thus preserved their head from being taken prisoner. Thus bereft of their leader, the enemies of Albert gave way on every side, and he beheld himself once more master of his capital.

But Albert was nevertheless conscious that so powerful an army, tho' it was repulsed, was not subdued. His apprehensions were moreover heightened, by gaining intelligence that the wound his adversary had received had, on examination, been found so slight, that he was not only pronounced to be entirely out of danger, but that in a few days he would be again able to head his army: Albert therefore summoned his council to meet him in his palace, and addressed them thus:

“Friends, countrymen, and heroes! ye have seen what determined valour can perform. Ye have beheld an almost innumerable army repelled by a handful of gallant soldiers. Yet prudence is as requisite as valour. Were we destitute of discretion, we should quickly see our band of friends fall victims to the rage of our adversaries; for though we have now repulsed them they will again return—they will return with added force; while, if we neglect the present opportunity,



portunity, we may be reduced by famine to despair. The only way, therefore, to avert the impending danger, and still preserve the honour of our country, is for one of my brave warriors to engage in single combat with the invader. The laws of my country prohibit its sovereign to meet an enemy single in the field, else should no life but mine be risked to preserve the liberties of my people. But whoever can subdue the fear of death—whoever will meet this barbarian in the field, and gallantly exert himself for the welfare of his country, shall (if successful) be rewarded with the hand of the princess, the only daughter of Albert, and the heirs of his crown."

A murmur of applause ran through the assembly; yet the stoutest heroes sat dubious on their seats; for Ravelher was considered as the lion of the forest—the thunderbolt of destruction—the rock in the ocean, that mocks the fury of the finging billows, and laughs at the hostile tempest. At length a youth arose, whose figure was commanding, and whose deportment was majestic; but the greenness of whose years seemed to preclude him from so hardy an adventure.

"If my sovereign will grant," said he, "to my youth the honour of revenging the wrongs of my country, my love for the princess shall give strength to my arm, and Leonto shall conquer or die. I have long been used to hear of deeds of valour; let me now endeavour to perform them, and imitate the glory of my ancestors." His gestures were daring and animated, and valour flashed from his eyes as spoke.

Albert, arrayed in his robes, attended by his council and the relations of the youth, proceeded with him to the place of combat, where a stage was erected and covered with purple cloth. At each extremity was a throne, and round each throne were seats for the council and arbitrators. The Prince Ravelher and his soldiers first ascended the stage, who were followed by the youthful Leonto and his aged father, venerable alike for his years and for his virtues. His silver locks challenged respect, and his

open countenance proclaimed him a friend to benevolence and to his country.

"My son," said the venerable old man, checking the tear of parental anxiety which was starting in his eye, "the fate of your country is intrusted to your hands. Be valiant, revenge her wrongs, and shew yourself worthy of the honour conferred upon you. If an old man's prayer can avail, Heaven will succour us—Heaven will protect you! But, oh! should fortune be averse, though the heart of thy aged father will burst, yet do thou, my child, avoid the deed of self-destruction, which has stained the memory of many a valiant hero; live, my boy, and look forward to Heaven's appointed time for the destruction of tyranny and the deliverance of thy country; and remember that, as well as thy fortune, thy life belongs to that Power who alone has a right to fix its period. That Power, I trust, will see thee run thy race of glory; and I exult in the hope that an honest fame will enrol thee among the list of worthies which are to illuminate the memorials of ages yet to come." He could add no more, but turned away to hide the gushing tear.

The worthy Albert was not less interested in Leonto's fate: with his own right hand he conducted him to the lists:—"Adieu," said he, "my hero! remember thy country, and forget not Almeria!"

Albert, and the arbiter for Ravelher, having ascended their thrones, the trumpets sounded, and Leonto threw down his gauntlet:—Ravelher sprang forward. They drew their weapons;—every eye was fixed upon them, and every heart throbbed with anxiety.

Ravelher pressed violently upon his antagonist, but the youth shifted his ground, and parried his thrusts with astonishing dexterity. The fury of each increased, and the arts of combat began to give way to impetuosity of youthful valour. Headstrong ardour and prudent recollection alternately propelled them to rashness, and checked their heedless fury. Blow was returned for blow, and wound repaid

repaid wound. The combat became every moment more and more interesting. The shields of both the combatants were severed, and they grasped their daggers in their left hands. The expectations of the two nations were now wound to the greatest height, when the sword of Ravelher pierced the side of Leonto. The blood gushed from the wound—the youth staggered, and the army of the invader shouted “Victory! victory!”

Ravelher aimed his dagger at the

breast of his foe, but by this he laid his left side unguarded; and Leonto, who had only staggered through stratagem, drove his poignard to his heart. And now the subjects of Albert rejoined “Victory! victory! the sword so long exercised in cruelty shall be exercised no more.” Peace and cordial friendship now took place; and the daughter of Albert rushed into the arms of her brave deliverer.

#### SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

**E**LIZABETH, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Bolen, ascended the throne November 17, 1558, being then twenty-five years old, pursuant to the order of succession settled by that king's will, authorized by act of parliament; and was crowned January 15, 1559.

As there were many troubles then in foreign states, chiefly on account of religion, she assisted the Protestants in Scotland, France, and the Low Countries, against their respective sovereigns, or the governing party, by whom they were cruelly oppressed and persecuted. The Queen of Scots, and the dauphin her husband, had, by order of Henry II. of France, taken the arms of England, with the titles of sovereigns of that kingdom: this made Elizabeth look on Mary as a dangerous rival; whereupon she entered, 1560, into a treaty with the Scotch malcontents, in pursuance of which she sent an army into Scotland to break the measures of her enemies, which had the desired success. Some time after she assisted the Hugonots in France. By these means Queen Elizabeth kept both France and Scotland so employed, that they could find no opportunity to put their schemes in execution of dethroning her. The pope was desirous of sending a nuncio to England, who was arrived in Flanders, and demanded permission to continue his journey to England, but could never obtain it; the queen saying she had nothing to do with the pope, who had no more authority than other bishops: and, as a security against the disturbance the pope might cause to be given from any quarter, she always

kept a good fleet in readiness against any invasion, and secured more and more the affections of her subjects, which she looked upon as her only support.

The Queen of Scots, being defeated in 1568 by the forces raised by the malcontents in that kingdom, was obliged to fly into England, where the queen kept her prisoner many years. A rebellion broke out in the north, under the Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland, and Dacres, a northern gentleman, who intended to have set Mary queen of Scots on the throne, and to have restored the popish religion. This rebellion Queen Elizabeth suppressed, and the Earl of Northumberland was beheaded; as was also the Duke of Norfolk in 1572, who had been released out of the Tower, and engaged again in a conspiracy against the queen. The year 1571 passed chiefly in a negotiation for a marriage between Queen Elizabeth and the Duke of Anjou, second son to Catharine de Medicis, and brother to Charles IX. of France. Both Charles and Elizabeth found their account in this negotiation, though neither of them intended it should take effect. Charles's design was to amuse the Protestants, particularly the Hugonots, with whom he had made a perfidious peace, till he had drawn them into the snare, in order to destroy them by treachery, when he found it difficult to do it by open force. Queen Elizabeth entered into the negotiation of the match to please her ministers, who were continually pressing her to marry, in order to cut off all hopes from the Queen of Scots, and to dishearten her enemies. However,



ever, a defensive alliance was concluded between the two crowns. Charles died, and was succeeded by the Duke of Anjou, by the name of Henry III. with whom Queen Elizabeth renewed the league between the two crowns, but under-hand supplied the Prince of Condé with money for the Hugonots; so that she might justly be called the support of the Protestant religion both abroad and at home, having in the beginning of her reign removed all the zealous Catholics from the councils and from all posts of authority, put Protestants in their room, and published a proclamation allowing divine service to be performed and the holy Scriptures to be read in the vulgar tongue.

Some time after another negotiation was carried on for a marriage between her and the Duke of Alençon, now duke of Anjou, Henry's brother, even to the signing of her marriage-articles, and the duke came over in person; but it was all broke off on a sudden. One Page had his right hand cut off on a scaffold for writing against the marriage. He made the following manly and spirited speech upon the scaffold: "Fellow-countrymen, I am come hither to receive the law according to my judgment, and thank the God of all, and of this I take God to witness (who knoweth the hearts of all men), that, as I am sorry I have offended her majesty, so did I never mean harm to her majesty's person, crown, or dignity; but have been as true a subject (as any was in England) to the best of my ability, except none." Then holding up his right hand, he said, "This hand did I put to the plough, and got my living by it many years. If it would have pleased her highness to have taken my left hand, or my life, she had dealt more friendly with me; for now I have no means to live; but God (who is the Father of us all) will provide for me. I beseech you all, good people, to pray for me, that I may take my punishment patiently." And so he laid his right hand upon the block, and prayed the executioner to dispatch him quickly. At two blows his hand was taken off. So lifting up the bleeding stump, and pointing to the block, he said to the by-standers, "See, I have

left there a true Englishman's hand." And so he went from the scaffold very stoutly, and with great courage. With what indignation must the unnecessary cruelty of the punishment, and the noble intrepidity of the sufferer, have affected the spectators of this disgrace to justice and humanity!

In 1577 she assisted the people of the Low Countries, who were grievously oppressed by the Duke of Alva, the King of Spain's general, and who was endeavouring to extirpate the Protestants; she lent them 100,000*l.* sterling, to enable them to carry on the war. Some years after she sent a good body of forces under the Earl of Leicester; but he, not being agreeable to the States, was recalled, and Lord Willoughby was appointed general of the English forces in his room. This war at last concluded in the total revolt of seven of these provinces from the dominion of Spain, which now make the most considerable republic in the world. The pope excommunicated the queen; and the King of Spain and the Duke of Guise were in a league with the pope to invade England, dethrone Elizabeth, and set up the Queen of Scots in her room. In the mean time, several plots were set on foot by the popish emissaries to take away her life; for which several priests, Jesuits, and others, were executed. A general association was also formed in England, to prosecute to death such as should attempt any thing against her person or government. The parliament approved and confirmed this association, and passed a severe act against popish priests and Jesuits, whereby they were required to depart the kingdom, and, if any returned, they were to be guilty of high-treason, and those who harboured them of felony. A little after the queen made an alliance with the King of Scotland for their mutual defence, and the security of the Protestant religion.

In 1586, Babington's conspiracy, in which were engaged several popish priests from the seminaries abroad, was discovered; and they were, to the number of fourteen, arraigned, condemned, and executed. It was laid for an invasion, to kill the queen, free the Queen of Scots, and set her on the throne. As the Queen of Scots appeared

peared by letters and otherwise to have a hand in this conspiracy, it was resolved now to prosecute her on an act of parliament made the preceding year, whereby the person for whom, or by whom, any thing should be attempted against the queen, was liable to death. Commissioners were accordingly sent to try her at Fotheringham-castle, in Northamptonshire, where she was then in custody, who in the end passed sentence upon her on the 25th of October. Four days after it was approved and confirmed by parliament. On December the 6th it was proclaimed in London, and then throughout the kingdom; and in February following the sentence was executed upon her in the hall of the said castle, by severing her head from her body, which she suffered with great calmness and resolution.

In 1588, the King of Spain, encouraged by Pope Sixtus V. sent a great fleet, to which they had given the title of the Invincible Armada, to invade England. It consisted of one hundred and thirty great ships, twenty caravels, and ten falves, having above 20,000 soldiers on-board, with seamen, ammunition, and provision, in proportion; to oppose which, 20,000 men were dispersed along the southern coasts, an army of 22,000 foot and 1000 horse was encamped at Tilbury, where the queen reviewed them: there was another army of 34,000 foot and 2000 horse, to guard the queen's person.

While the celebrated Spanish armada hovered about the coast of England, Queen Elizabeth made the following speech to the officers and soldiers that composed the camp at Tilbury, which may now be adverted to in the present posture of affairs, when this country has to dread an invasion from the most insidious and most formidable foe with which any country whatever, either from the fatality of human affairs, or from the wretched policy of its governors, was threatened:

"My loving people, We have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety, to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I assure you, I do not desire to live to

distrust my faithful and loving people. Let tyrants fear; I have always so behaved myself, that under God I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and good-will of my subjects. And therefore I am come amongst you at this time, not as for my recreation or sport, but being resolved, in the midst and heat of the battle, to live or die amongst you all, and to lay down, for my God, and for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood even in the dust. I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too; and think foul scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, shall dare to invade the borders of my realms; to which, rather than any dishonour should grow by me, I myself will take up arms; I myself will be your general, judge, and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field. I know already by your forwardness, that you have deserved rewards and crowns; and we do assure you, on the word of a prince, they shall be duly paid you. In the mean time, my lieutenant-general shall be in my stead; than whom never prince commanded more noble and worthy subject; not doubting by your obedience to my general, by your concord in the camp, and your valour in the field, we shall shortly have a famous victory over those enemies of my God, and of my people."

Her subjects shewed the utmost readiness to stand in her defence; and she fitted out a considerable fleet, under the command of Lord Howard as admiral; Drake, Hawkins, and Forbisher, vice-admirals; and sent Seymour, with forty English and Dutch ships, to the coast of Flanders, to hinder the Prince of Parma from joining the Spanish fleet. On the 19th of July, the Spanish fleet, commanded by the Duke of Medina Celi, entered the channel, when the English fleet kept close to them, and soon took some of their ships. On the 24th there was a brisk engagement. On the 27th the Spanish fleet anchored off Calais, vainly expecting



the Prince of Parma. The English fleet followed them, and in the night sent eight fire-ships among them; this caused them to cut their cables, and to put to sea in the utmost confusion: in short, the whole fleet was dispersed, and of this prodigious armament only sixty ships ever reached home, and those in a shattered condition.

Queen Elizabeth died on the 24th of March, 1603, in the 70th year of her age and the 45th of her reign.

Upon the accession of Queen Elizabeth, the commercial, as well as political, affairs of this country, began to make a much more conspicuous figure amongst the nations of Europe. Her first care was the protection of the two societies of Merchant Adventurers, and Merchants of the Staple, long before settled in Germany; and, by several wise and judicious regulations and restrictions, to set her foreign and domestic trade above the controul of other powers, who, on this occasion, betrayed evident marks of jealousy and discontent. The queen, however, far from being intimidated, wisely provided for her own security against future disasters, by filling her magazines with ammunition, and military and naval stores. In the second year of her reign, she caused gunpowder to be made in England, which, till this time, had been supplied by the German Steel-yard company; she also caused brass and iron ordnance to be cast, and built a considerable number of ships of war, forming the most important fleet that England had ever seen; insomuch, that foreigners stiled her "the restorer of naval glory, and queen of the northern seas." Her wealthiest merchants also, after her example, began to build ships with great alacrity; and, on any emergency, readily joined them with the national fleet, which enabled her to send out twenty thousand fighting men for sea-service.

Amidst this prosperity, it was no small mortification to the queen, that, having no military stores of her own production, she was still necessitated to obtain them of the German Steel-yard merchants, at their own prices, there being as yet but few English merchants dealing in that way; and

this was one of her greatest inducements for encouraging commercial companies amongst her own subjects. A charter of incorporation had been granted, by Philip and Mary, in 1554, to the Russia company, who had, in consequence, opened a factory in Muscow, and completed two or three voyages. To give stability to this undertaking, Queen Elizabeth, in 1569, sent over Sir Thomas Randolph with dispatches to the czar, in behalf of this new company, and obtained for them an exemption from all duties, customs, &c. with leave to transport their merchandise into Persia, and to trade in the fullest and most ample manner. She also granted fresh immunities to the two elder companies, named of the Staple, and of the Merchant Adventurers, who were likewise considerably increasing in trade; the former in the exportation of our wool, and the latter of our cloth; both of them to the advancement of the queen's revenue. This made the Hanseatic Steel-yard company labour to render the English merchants obnoxious to all the other trading nations, by various calumnies; yet, in spite of their malice, an universal spirit of adventuring to foreign parts for discovery and traffic, as well as for improving our manufactures at home, seemed to pervade all ranks of the people; so that the English soon became an overmatch for the declining Hanseatics, in naval strength, commerce, and riches. The Hans Towns, much alarmed at what was going on in London, applied to the Emperor Rodolph II. to send over a remonstrance in their behalf, strongly pleading the necessity of obliging the queen to yield to their being reinstated in their former *exclusive* privileges, under pain of a total prohibition and exclusion of all British merchants from Hamburgh. The queen, justly incensed at this daring remonstrance, published a counter declaration, wherein she absolutely annulled all their ancient immunities, prohibiting all foreigners, and particularly the Hans or Steel-yard merchants, from exporting English wool. This was a severe blow to the Hanseatics; and,

in consequence of it, in the following year, 1579, their general assembly at Lunenburg laid a duty of seven and three-fourths per cent. on all goods imported into their territories by Englishmen, or exported by them. Queen Elizabeth therefore, firmly determined never to yield to their unreasonable demands, immediately laid an equal duty of seven and three-fourths per cent. on all merchandise either imported or exported by the German Steel-yard merchants. In this state they continued until the year 1587, when the queen was induced to allow them the same commercial privileges and immunities as were enjoyed by her own natural-born subjects, provided her English merchants at Hamburgh were put upon the same footing; and, as the queen was then at war with Spain, she made it a stipulation with the Hans Towns not to carry into Spain, Portugal, or Italy, either provisions, naval stores, or implements of war, for the king of Spain's use, under forfeiture of the present immunities, and even of corporal punishment.

This propitious reign also gave birth to the East-India company. The queen, by being at war with Spain, was prevented from getting spices from Lisbon at first hand; she therefore determined to enter her people directly upon a commerce to the East Indies. Accordingly, on the 31st of December, 1600, she granted a charter to George earl of Cumberland, and two hundred and fifteen knights, aldermen, and merchants, that, at their own costs and charges, they might open a trade to the East Indies, in the country and parts of Asia and Africa,—to be one body politic and corporate, by the name of *The Governor and Company of Merchants of London, trading to the East Indies*. The shares subscribed were 50l. each; and this company existed, through many and various vicissitudes, under the same denomination, till the year 1708, when it was absorbed by the present *United Company of Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies*. Another branch of commerce was likewise opened by the London merchants, to Narva, in Livonia, which

the Hanseatic society and carried on, and carefully concealed from other nations. The utmost encouragement was also given, either separately or collectively, to all English merchants, who chose to make adventures abroad, for the improvement of our commerce and the extension of our trade. In the naval department, the liberality of this illustrious princess was no less exemplary; she considerably increased the pay of her naval officers and seamen, and established the chest at Chatham, for the relief of superannuated or maimed seamen, and made it a perpetuity. Her encouragement of the home manufactures also gave great energy to trade, and tended very much to enrich and improve the metropolis. Under her auspices, Sir Thomas Gresham, an eminent merchant of London, who, in the stile of those times, was called the queen's merchant, because he had the management of all her remittances, and her other money concerns with foreign states, and with her own armies beyond sea, erected that sumptuous and convenient building, the Royal Exchange. Upon its being finished, in 1567, the queen went in person, and proclaimed its name, with the Herald at Arms, trumpets sounding, &c. It was burned down in the dreadful conflagration of 1666, and soon rebuilt in its present additional splendour.

We may here remark, that Queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, was presented, by her silk-woman, Mrs. Montague, with a pair of black knit silk stockings, the first of the sort known in England; and thenceforth she never wore cloth ones any more. Dr. Howell, in his *History of the World*, relates, that Henry VIII. that magnificent and expensive prince, generally wore cloth hose, except there came from Spain, by great chance, a pair of silk stockings; for Spain very early abounded in silk. His son, Edward VI. was presented with a pair of long Spanish silk stockings by his merchant, the above-mentioned Sir Thomas Gresham; and the present was then much taken notice of at court.

SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## BONNY KITTY.

WRITTEN AND SUNG BY MR. DIBDIN.

WHEN last from the Straits we had  
fairly cast anchor,  
I went bonny Kitty to hail  
With quintables stor'd, for our voyage was  
a spanker,  
And bran-new was every sail.  
But I knew well enough how with words  
sweet as honey  
They'd bilk us poor tars of our gold;  
And, when the fly gypseys have finger'd  
the money,  
The bag they give poor Jack to hold.  
So I chas'd her, d'ye see, my lads, under  
false colours,  
Swore my riches were all at an end,  
That I'd sported away all my good-look-  
ing dollars,  
And borrow'd my clothes of a friend.  
Oh! then had you seen her!—no longer  
with honey,  
'Twas—Varlet audacious and bold,  
Be gone from my sight; since you've spent  
all your money,  
For Kitty the bag you may hold.  
With that I pull'd out double handfuls  
of shiners,  
And scornfully bade her good b'ye.  
'Twould have done your heart good had  
you then seen her fine airs,  
How she'd leer, and she'd sob, and  
she'd sigh.  
But I stood well the broadside; while  
jewel and honey  
She call'd me, I put up the gold,  
And, bearing away as I sack'd all the  
money,  
Left the bag for Ma'am Kitty to hold.

## NO CASH, NO LAW.

TO London town my steps I bent,  
Where Truth must wear a front of  
brafs,  
To Westminster in haste I went,  
For I'd a suit to urge, alas!  
Then to my counsel learn'd I hied,  
"Wife Sir, I have a suit," I cried;  
"Help me in *forma pauperis* to plead,"  
But ah! for want of cash, I found I could  
not speed.

Among the crowd as I was press'd,  
Whip from my head my hat was gone;  
In the King's Bench, above the rest,  
I saw a grave and portly Don:  
Sure he, I thought, won't take a fee,  
So down I popp'd upon my knee;  
Vol. III. No. 37.

"O to my suit great magistrate give heed!"  
Alas! for want of cash, I found I could  
not speed.

I saw the clerks set all arow,  
Writing as fast as fast might be;  
The crier, too, began to crow,  
He call'd aloud, ('twas strange to me,)  
"O yes! O yes! O yes!" he whines,  
"Lift to your names and save your fines!"  
I cannot tell what they might save indeed;  
And here, for want of cash, I know I  
could not speed.

And now the Common Pleas I found,  
Where one in filken coif look'd big;  
I bow'd me to the very ground,  
To his black cap and pompous wig:  
I told him all my piteous case,  
My neighbour's fraud, my own disgrace;  
The devil a word did from his lips pro-  
ceed!  
He found I had no cash, and therefore  
could not speed.

Then to the Rolls away I went,  
'Midst learned clerks in Chancery;  
I found them all on gain intent,  
The deuce a one regarded me.  
Down on my marrow-bones I fell,  
And 'gan my hapless tale to tell;  
"Hold—first, good friend," they cry'd,  
"we must be see'd!"  
So here, for want of cash, I found I could  
not speed.

## A WARNING FOR WINTER.

IN wint'ry months ne'er breathe the  
morning air,  
Nor to your wonted bow'rs at eve repair;  
If noon-tide Phœbus smile, beneath his ray  
Catch the bright moment, and improve  
the day.  
But when dark clouds from liquid skies  
depend;  
When fogs arise, or freezing rimes de-  
scend;  
Then let the cheerful hearth and blaz-  
ing fire  
Unbend the mind, and social mirth in-  
spire.  
So shall succeeding springs behold you  
blest,  
And warmth and comfort mark your win-  
ter's rest.

ODE, BY PETER PINDAR,  
Pleading against excessive Damages for  
Crim. Con.

A Man may in the cold dim eve of life,  
By way of sunshine take a pretty wife  
To

To warm him as King David did of yore;  
Kiss her neat little finger, pat her cheek,  
Toy with the snowy beauties of her neck—  
No more!

Preventing thus each rake of flesh and sin  
From impudently stepping in.

Thus toying, mumbling, chuckling, the  
old fool,  
Who wanteth much the birch of Cupid's  
school,

Expects his wife, so soft, and so divine,  
To fancy ev'ry sublimary bliss  
In ev'ry toying monkey-trick and kiss,  
And round his neck, her arms with rap-  
ture twine;

Just like the fragrant pea, with blooms so  
thick,  
That curls her tendrils round a rotten  
stick!

For him to raise his hedge, and bar his  
gate,  
Is nat'ral—sad is trespass on th' estate:  
For who, alas! can sit with silent ease,  
And see a neighbour's pig among his peas?

But why should . . . . . be afraid of  
horns,

Who married a poor squeal starv'd cat,  
for money?

Heav'ns! what should put the judge's  
breach on thorns?

Where, for the wasps, alas! is ma-  
dam's honey?

'Tis sweetness tempts the insects from  
the skies;

Call needeth not a flapper for the flies.

So furious is this judge against Crim. Con.  
That poor Adultery is just undone:  
Afraid to write, or squeeze, or wink his  
eye,

Nay, waft the foul's soft wishes on a sigh!

Wee to the wicked cornu-factors now!

Ten, twenty, thirty, forty, thousand  
pounds,

For him to pay who milks his neighbour's  
cow;

Stealing by night so sily to his grounds.

"O 'tis so vile, so wicked an affair!

Dreadful a neighbour's honour to en-  
snare—

Take his dear spouse without his leave,  
indeed!

What! of his bosom steal the tender wife!  
The pigeon to his feet, prolonging life,  
Of sinking age the sweet supporting reed!

O that the law would make such doings  
death!"

Thus roars the jealous judge, with thun-  
dering breath.

O . . . . .! rave not thus with anger  
pale,

But let thy fav'rite Justice hold the scale:  
What though we must condemn the sin-  
gled bliss;

Ten thousand pounds are too much for a  
kiss.

#### The SAILOR'S HOPE in a STORM.

THE night comes on without a star,  
Hoarse murmurs from the main afar  
A warning send;

And, as her threats increase,

In humble suit for peace,

To kiss the angry wave in vain, behold  
the lofty main-mast bend.

A storm the roaring winds proclaim,  
The herald's voice in thunder's drown'd,  
The torrent pours, and sheets of flame  
O'erspread the dreadful prospect round.  
The ship unruly scorns command,  
And quaffs whole seas of brine,  
The rudder flies the coxen's hand,  
To form an universal wreck the elements  
combine.

Be skies of sea, and seas of skies, afraid,  
The British tar alone stands undismay'd;  
Nor beats his heart amidst the general roar,  
But for the lovely maid he left on-shore:  
When fops shall cry, "For you, my dear,  
I burn,"

Let Poll ne'er sigh but for her Jack's re-  
turn.

#### On the DEATH of EDWARD GREENLY, Esq. of CLIFTON.

WHO knows his virtues must his  
death deplore,

And long lament that Greenly is no more!  
Set is that sun, which shed on all its rays,  
And claim'd from every friend the warm-  
est praise;

Mute is that tongue, on which persuasion  
hung,

In mildest accents from true wisdom  
sprung;

Clos'd are those eyes, which shone with  
clearest beams,

When converse sweet inspir'd the choicest  
themes.

'Twas his to charm the list'ning ear of  
sense,

And sooth the roughest tongue by elo-  
quence,

His to convince and lead with gentlest  
sway

Each erring reas'ner led by pride astray—  
Such was the man the weeping Muses  
mourn,

Lost to his friends—Ah! never to return!  
Fled to those spheres, where brightest  
angels dwell,

Whilst all, who knew him, breathe a sad  
farewell.

FOREIGN



## F O R E I G N N E W S.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, Oct. 24.

*Extract of a Letter from Commodore Sir John Borlase Warren, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated La Pomone, Road of Isle d'Yeu, October 17, 1795.*

I BEG you will inform their lordships, that the Aquilon frigate arrived, on the 14th instant, from Sir James Saumarez, with dispatches, and put to sea again the same day:—At eleven A. M. on the 15th, she returned, and informed me, that there were two ships of Admiral Hervey's Squadron in chase of the enemy. I immediately gave orders for the Concorde to weigh; and doing so with La Pomone, leaving five sail of transports in the charge of Lieutenant Bowling, of the Swinger gun-vessel, and having cleared the south end of the island, I discovered the enemy, with the Orion and Thalia in chase, and soon after perceived two other sail, which proved to be the Melampus and Latona: the Aquilon, who was the head-moist, being within gun-shot of the enemy, they doubled the Baleine bank, and proceeded up the Pertuis d'Antioche to Rochford, from which it was not possible to cut them off. I hauled to the wind directly, and discovered two other sail in the north-west, steering in for the land; the whole Squadron chased, and on our nearer approach found them to be a line-of-battle ship and a corvette brig; I endeavoured to cut them off from the land, and after several shot had been fired the corvette brought to, and proved to be L'Evielle, of eighteen guns and one hundred men: had been out sixty days, in company with La Forte, of fifty guns; Le Veriade, thirty-six guns; Tartenf, thirty-six guns; and a lugger: they have, according to their report, taken twelve sail of West-Indiamen; the two re-captures (Kent of London, and Albion) by this ship and the Orion were of the number of their prizes.

HORSE-GUARDS, October 31.

A Dispatch, of which the following is an extract, has been received by the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, from Vice-admiral the Honourable Sir G. K. Elphinstone, K. B. dated on-board his Majesty's ship Monarch, Simon's Bay, Cape of Good Hope, Aug. 18, 1795.

I HAD the honour of informing you,

in a former dispatch, that the Dutch were entrenched in a strong position at Muyfenbergh, and well furnished with cannon, having a steep mountain on their right, and the sea on the left, difficult of approach on account of shallow water, high surf on the shore, but which the absolute necessity of the post rendered it requisite that we should possess, and made it obvious to Major-general Craig and myself that it ought to be attempted.

For this service I secretly prepared a gun-boat, and armed the launches of the fleet with heavy cannonades; landed two battalions of seamen, about one thousand, under the command of Captains Hardy of the Echo, and Spranger of the Rattlesnake; and sent ships frequently around the bay, to prevent suspicion of an attack, when any favourable opportunity might offer.

On the 7th instant a light breeze sprung up from the north-west, and at twelve o'clock the pre-concerted signal was made; when Major-general Craig, with his accustomed readiness and activity, instantly put the forces on shore in motion, and, at the same moment, Commodore Blakett, equally zealous, in the America, with the Stately, Echo, and Rattlesnake, got under weigh, whilst the gun-boat and armed launches preceded the march of the troops about five hundred yards, to prevent their being interrupted.

About one o'clock the ships, being abreast of an advanced post of two guns, fired a few shot, which induced those in charge to depart; and, on approaching a second post of one gun and a royal mortar or howitzer, the effect was the same. On proceeding off the camp the confusion was instantly manifest, although the distance from the ships was greater than could have been wished, but the shallowness prevented a nearer approach.

The Echo led, commanded by Lieutenant Tod of the Monarch, and anchored in two and a half fathoms, followed by the America, which anchored in four and a half, then the Stately and Rattlesnake, anchoring nearer, in proportion to their smaller draughts of water, off the enemy's works, which began to fire, and the five was returned by the sloops; but an increase of wind prevented the large ships from acting until they had carried out heavy anchors. This duty was performed by the commanders with great coolness, much to their own honour and their country's credit.

In a few minutes after the fire opened, which obliged the Dutch to abandon their camp with the utmost precipitation, taking with them only two field-pieces, and at four o'clock the major-general took possession of it, after a fatiguing march over heavy sandy ground. To him I beg leave to refer for the particulars of what was taken therein, as the sea ran so high that no person from the ships or gun-boats could venture to land.

In transmitting to you the proceedings of the fleet under my command, I shall at all times feel great satisfaction in doing justice to the merits of the several officers. To their judgment and good conduct in the present instance is to be attributed the immediate success which attended the attempt: it is therefore my duty to recommend to his majesty's notice Commodore Blankett, Captain Douglas, Lieutenant Tod of the *Monarch*, commanding the *Echo*, and Lieutenant Ramage, also of the *Monarch*, commanding the *Rattlesnake*, and Mr. Charles Adam, of the *Monarch*, midshipman, who commanded the gun-boat. I am sensibly obliged to them, each individually, for their steady and correct discharge of my orders.

I must further beg leave to add, that it is universally agreed the *Echo's* fire was superiorly directed and ably kept up; and particular acknowledgements are also due to the officers and men for the general zeal and activity which appeared in every countenance, of which I was enabled to judge with more precision, as the commodore obligingly permitted me to accompany him, and to visit the other ships employed under his direction upon this service.

The *America* had two men killed and four wounded; and one gun disabled, being struck by a shot; the *Stately* one man wounded. Some shots passed through the ships, but did not materially injure them.

I am fearful the major-general will not be able to write by this conveyance, a Genoese ship, which intends touching at *St. Helena*, as he is now at *Muyfenbergh*.

I have inclosed a list of the Dutch ships detained in this bay.

*List of Dutch Ships detained in St. Simon's Bay, October 18, 1795.*

The ship *Willemstadt en Boetzlaar*, Captain *St. Kooter*, 978 tons, arrived May 10, 1795, from the *Texel*. Landed her cargo here.

*De Yonge Bonifacius*, Captain *Jan Nicholas Croese*, 488 tons, arrived June 24, from *Batavia*, laden.

*Gertruyda*, Captain *de Vries*, 660 tons,

arrived May 9, from *Amsterdam*. Landed her cargo here.

*Het Vertrouwen*, Captain *Hilbrand van Wyen*, 890 tons, arrived August 14, from *Batavia*, laden.

*Louisa and Anthony*, Captain *Kersjin Hilbrand*, 640 tons, arrived August 14, from *Batavia*, laden.

DOWNING-STREET, Nov. 11.

*Dispatches, of which the following are Copies, have been received from Lieutenant-colonel Craufurd, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majesty's principal Secretary of State for the Foreign Department.*

*Head Quarters, Weilmunster, October 18.*

MY LORD,

I HAVE the honour to inform your lordship, that since the 13th instant, the advanced guards of the Austrian army, under Generals Boros, Kray, and Haddick, had been in constant pursuit of the enemy on all the roads leading across the Lahn between *Welburgh* and *Nassau*. General *Warneck* with the reserve marched towards *Limbours*, as a central point, from which he could support the advanced guards to his right or left, according to circumstances, whilst the main army advanced to the camp of *Weilmunster*, between *Ufingen* and *Weilbourg*, ready to cross the Lahn at the latter place, and attack the enemy's left if they should attempt to maintain a position on that river.

The marshal has taken every step that he judged best calculated to distress their army; but their retreat has been so precipitate, and the country through which they marched so extremely intersected with woods and deep valleys, that he has only been able to bring on some affairs with the best troops of the rear guards of their different columns. In these the Austrians have taken several cannon, a great many ammunition waggons, and between one and two thousand prisoners, besides having killed and wounded considerable numbers.

It is expected that the enemy will raise the siege of *Ehrenbreitstein* to-day, and they seem determined to pass the Rhine, with the principal part of their army, at *Neuwied*, (where they have bridges,) as expeditiously as possible. Their left column is directing its march towards *Cologne*.

The Austrian advanced guards, supported by the reserve, are still in pursuit.

The enemy have destroyed a great quantity of powder and other stores, which they had not time to send away.

*October*



October 19. I have the honour to inform your lordship, that the siege of Ehrenbreitstein is raised, and the enemy are crossing the Rhine as expeditiously as possible at Neuwied.

I have the honour to be, &c.  
C. CRAUFURD.

*Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfayt's Army, Limburgh, October 26, 1795.*

MY LORD,

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that General Wurmser has obtained a signal advantage over the French in the neighbourhood of Mannheim, of which the following is a detail:

In the night from the 17th to the 18th instant, that part of the Austrian army which was stationed before Mannheim assembled in five columns, commanded by General Wurmser in person, to attack the different posts that the enemy occupied in front of that place. The disposition was very masterly, and the spirited manner in which it was executed answered fully to the wish and expectation of the general. After a severe action, all the works that the enemy had thrown up were carried; their tents and a great deal of baggage were taken, besides some cannon, and several ammunition waggons.

Owing to an impenetrable fog, which continued the whole night, and great part of the morning, the communication between the different columns was extremely difficult, the prompt execution of orders was impossible, and the generals could not conduct their attacks with any degree of certainty. This unfortunate circumstance enabled the enemy to get off the most of their artillery, and prevented the Austrians from following them into the place as General Wurmser intended.

The Austrians had upon this occasion about thirty officers and between six and seven hundred non-commissioned officers and privates killed and wounded. The French had one general-officer, twenty-one officers, and between five and six hundred non-commissioned officers and privates, taken prisoners: their killed and wounded are supposed to amount to about two thousand. In consequence of this victory, Mannheim is closely invested, and the bombardment will be begun immediately.

October 26. I have the honour to inform your lordship, that General Jourdan's left column, which had directed its march towards Cologne, has passed the Rhine, as well as all those troops who retired upon Neuwied.

From the reports from the different corps which are now collected, it appears that the Austrians have taken in all during

the enemy's retreat about 4,000 prisoners, 30 pieces of cannon, and 200 ammunition waggons. The enemy destroyed a great quantity of military stores, which they had not time to carry away. It is impossible to ascertain with any precision their number of killed and wounded, but it must have been very considerable, more especially as the peasants rose against them in many places. The whole country through which the French marched on this occasion bears the most evident marks of their depredations. There is no village, and I may almost say no house, that has not ample reason to lament this invasion; for, however short its duration has been, the effects will be felt for many years to come. The inhabitants have been plundered of their cattle, grain, and whatever could be found that was valuable. In many places what could not be carried off was destroyed. Even women and children have been murdered: in short, the manifold acts of atrocity, which are proved in the clearest manner, are such as could only be perpetrated by men lost to every sentiment of humanity.

The Prussian troops that were on the line of demarkation, and the guards which they stationed at different places for the purpose of affording protection, were ill treated and driven away by the French with expressions of resentment and contempt.

I have the honour to be, &c.

C. CRAUFURD.

*Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfayt, Mayence, October 30, 1795.*

MY LORD,

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that on the 28th instant, the Austrian troops, under the command of General Wurmser, stormed the Galyenberg, an entrenched height which formed an advanced post to the fortress of Mannheim. The possession of this important point facilitates extremely the approaches against the body of the place. To favour the assault of the Galyenberg, a false attack was intended to be made upon the Necker Fort; however, the impetuosity of the troops was such, that they stormed it without having orders to do so, but as it could not be maintained, being immediately under the fire of the town, they abandoned it, after spiking 13 pieces of cannon.

Marshal Clairfayt attacked the enemy's intrenched camp before Mayence yesterday, and gained a complete victory. The following is a detail of this very brilliant and important operation.

Your lordship will recollect that in the month of November last the French took

a po-

a position upon the heights in front of Mayence, with their right to Laubenheim and their left to Rudenheim; both of which villages are on the Rhine, the former above, the latter below, the fortress. This position completely invests the place on that side; and from the time they first occupied it, almost to the day of the attack, they were constantly employed in constructing and perfecting the most formidable entrenchments. These consisted of two lines. The first was composed of large detached works, closed in the rear, and covered and joined with each other by three distinct ranges of *trous de loups*, [ground pits of considerable depth; each range was composed of several rows of these pits, placed irregularly and quite close together.] The second was a complete connected intrenchment, covered in the same manner. The ditches of both lines were of a depth and breadth far beyond what is usual in field-works. Every possible advantage had been taken of the ground, which is particularly favourable for the formation of a fortified camp; and the French generals have been known to say frequently in private, that they considered this situation as wholly impregnable.

Marshal Clairfayt, after having forced General Jourdan to repass the Rhine, returned with a part of his army to the camp of Wickert, about five English miles off Mayence; and, in consequence of information received by him that the enemy intended to reinforce their army before that place very considerably, he, without waiting for those troops that had advanced beyond the Lahn, determined to attack General Schaal, who occupied the entrenchments above described, with fifty-two battalions of infantry and five regiments of cavalry.

The army that was destined for this attack, consisting of thirty-two regular battalions, some light infantry, and twenty-eight squadrons of cavalry, taken partly from the garrison of Mayence, was formed into four divisions: one, of ten battalions and six squadrons, under General New; one, of ten battalions and six squadrons, under General Stader; one, of five battalions and sixteen squadrons, under General Coloredo; and one, of seven battalions of grenadiers, under General Werneck. Generals New and Stader were to direct their march, the former towards the heights above Laubenheim, the latter towards Heiligt Creutz (an old church in front of the enemy's right wing), forming their infantry into three lines, and attacking the right of the position in immediate connexion with each other, whilst the Warisding light infantry got round

the village of Laubenheim; and about 1000 Slavonians, who were embarked on the Rhine, landed under the protection of six gun-boats behind the enemy's right, and kept up a heavy fire for the purpose of making a diversion. General Coloredo was to march towards Bretzenheim, a village in front of the enemy's centre, from whence he was to detach a part of his troops, particularly cavalry, to co-operate with General Stader; and with a part of the remainder he was to make demonstrations towards different points of the centre, whilst two of his battalions and two squadrons, with a considerable proportion of heavy artillery, made false attacks upon Monbach and Gousteinheim, two villages in front of the enemy's left. Some light troops were to land behind the left of the position for the same purpose as those who landed behind the right. General Werneck's division was to remain on the glacis of Mayence as a reserve.

It must be observed that Marshal Clairfayt directed his real attack upon the most commanding and by far the strongest part of the camp, because the immediate retreat of the enemy's whole army was the inevitable consequence of success on that point.

The attack commenced in this order at half an hour past five in the morning. The disposition was executed with the utmost accuracy, and in a very short time the battle was decided in favour of the Austrians, who displayed exemplary discipline and bravery. The general officers, finding that they could not advance on horseback, on account of the *trous de loups*, dismounted, and entered the entrenchments on foot, at the head of the troops. The enemy did not in the least expect to be attacked; and, although they certainly had some time to prepare for their defence, from the difficulties that the Austrian troops had to surmount in approaching the works, yet it is to the circumstance of surprise, as well as to the uncommon intrepidity with which the attack was executed, that must be attributed their having abandoned, without more resistance, one of the most formidable positions that ever was occupied.

One hundred and six pieces of cannon, two hundred ammunition waggons, about two thousand prisoners (amongst these two generals and sixty other officers) are already brought into Mayence; whilst great quantities of stores of various kinds, collected for the purposes of the siege, have likewise fallen into the hands of the Austrians.

The enemy's killed and wounded are supposed to amount to about 3000. The



The Austrians had on this occasion between sixty and seventy officers and about fifteen hundred non-commissioned officers and privates killed and wounded: amongst the former were Lieutenant-general Schmerling, and Major-general Wolchenheim.

General Naundorf crossed the Rhine in

the afternoon with part of his troops that had been stationed in the neighbourhood of Gerau, and took possession of Oppenheim.

The marshal is now encamped in front of Mayence, and his light troops are pursuing in all directions.

## M E E T I N G O F P A R L I A M E N T.

THURSDAY, October 29.

**H**IS Majesty went down in state to the House of Lords; and, being seated on the throne, a message was sent commanding the attendance of the Commons. The Speaker and several members attended at the bar, when his Majesty was pleased to make the following most gracious speech to both houses of parliament:

*“ My Lords and Gentlemen. It is a great satisfaction to me to reflect, that, notwithstanding the many events unfavourable to the common cause, the prospect resulting from the general situation of affairs has, in many important respects, been materially improved in the course of the present year.*

*“ In Italy the threatened invasion of the French has been prevented; and they have been driven back from a considerable part of the line of coast which they had occupied.—There is also reason to hope that the recent operations of the Austrian armies have checked the progress which they had made on the side of Germany, and frustrated the offensive projects which they were pursuing in that quarter.*

*“ The successes which have attended their military operations in other parts of the campaign, and the advantages which they have derived from the conclusion of separate treaties with some of the powers who were engaged in the war, are far from compensating the evils which they experience from its continuance. The destruction of their commerce, the diminution of their maritime power, and the unparalleled embarrassment and distress of their internal situation, have produced the impression which was, naturally to be expected; and a general sense appears to prevail throughout France, that the only relief from the increasing pressure of these difficulties must arise from the restoration of peace, and the establishment of some settled system of government.*

*“ The destruction and anarchy which have so long prevailed in that country, have led to a crisis, of which it is as yet impossible to foresee the issue; but which must, in all human probability, produce*

consequences highly important to the interests of Europe. Should this crisis terminate in any order of things compatible with the tranquillity of other countries, and affording a reasonable expectation of security and permanence in any treaty which might be concluded, the appearance of a disposition to negotiate for general peace, on just and suitable terms, will not fail to be met, on my part, with an earnest desire to give it the fullest and speediest effect.—But I am persuaded you will agree with me, that nothing is so likely to ensure and accelerate this desirable end, as to shew that we are prepared for either alternative, and are determined to prosecute the war with the utmost energy and vigour until we have the means of concluding, in conjunction with our allies, such a peace as the justice of our cause, and the situation of the enemy, may entitle us to expect.

*“ With this view, I am continuing to make the greatest exertions for maintaining and improving our naval superiority, and for carrying on active and vigorous operations in the West Indies, in order to secure and extend the advantages which we have gained in that quarter, and which are so nearly connected with our commercial resources and maritime strength.*

*“ I rely with full confidence on the continuance of your firm and zealous support; on the uniform bravery of my fleets and armies; and on the fortitude, perseverance, and public spirit, of all ranks of my people.*

*“ The acts of hostility committed by the United Provinces, under the influence and controul of France, have obliged me to treat them as in a state of war with this country.*

*“ The fleet which I have employed in the North Seas has received the most cordial and active assistance from the naval force furnished by the Empress of Russia, and has been enabled effectually to check the operations of the enemy in that quarter.*

*“ I have concluded engagements of defensive alliance with the two imperial courts;*

courts; and the ratifications of the treaty of commerce with the United States of America, which I announced to your last year, have been exchanged. I have directed copies of these treaties to be laid before you.

*"Gentlemen of the House of Commons.* It is a matter of deep concern to me, that the exigencies of the public service will require farther additions to the heavy burdens which have been unavoidably imposed on my people. I trust that their pressure will in some degree be alleviated by the flourishing state of our commerce and manufactures; and that our expences, though necessarily great in their amount, will, under the actual circumstances of the war, admit of considerable diminution in comparison with those of the present year.

*"My Lords and Gentlemen.* I have observed for some time past, with the greatest anxiety, the very high price of grain; and that anxiety is increased by the apprehension that the produce of the wheat-harvest in the present year may not have been such as effectually to relieve my people from the difficulties with which they have had to contend. The spirit of order and submission to the laws, which, with very few exceptions, has manifested itself under this severe pressure, will, I am sure, be felt by you as an additional incentive, to apply yourselves with the utmost diligence to the consideration of such measures as may tend to alleviate the present distress, and to prevent, as far as possible, the renewal of similar embarrassments in future. Nothing has been omitted on my part that appeared likely to contribute to this end; and you may be assured of my hearty concurrence in whatever regulations the wisdom of parliament may adopt on a subject so peculiarly interesting to my people, whose welfare will ever be the object nearest my heart."

After his majesty and the house of commons had withdrawn, the house was cleared of strangers, and their lordships went into a committee of privileges in consequence of the circumstances that had attended his majesty's coming to the house.

These circumstances were such as must have excited the most painful emotions in the royal breast—such as every friend to the constitution, who entertains a just sense of the respect due to the office and to the person of the sovereign, and who feels for the peace and good order of the community, must very seriously lament.

The circumstances alluded to were as follow:—The Mait and the Parade of St.

James's Park, Parliament-street, and the adjoining avenues, were completely choaked up with spectators while the king was passing to and from the parliament house. The crowd was by no means so great at the coronation: and, to see the king go to the house, there never were before more than a tenth part of the numbers of this day: for they, at least, amounted to 200,000. Several noblemen and cabinet ministers passed through the park, from Buckingham-house, about two o'clock. The Earl of Chatham, Duke of Gloucester, &c. were hissed, and the Duke of Portland was very much hooted.

About twenty minutes afterwards the king left Buckingham-house, and was violently hissed, and hooted, and groaned at, with incessant vociferations of *No Pitt, No War, Peace, Bread, &c. &c.* the whole way; but no violence was offered till he arrived opposite the Ordnance-office, when a small pebble or marble bullet broke one of the windows.

The ministers had taken great precautions to preserve the peace, and to prevent any indecorous or unpleasant language from reaching his majesty's ear. Bodies of troops were in readiness in various parts, and a great number of additional constables surrounded the state coach; without which circle was the unusual appearance of a military guard on either side.

When his majesty entered the house of peers, the first words he uttered were these, to the lord chancellor: "MY LORD, I HAVE BEEN SHOT AT." This alluded to the substance which had broken the window while passing the Ordnance-office.

Three or four persons were apprehended on suspicion of having thrown stones, &c. at the king; and one of them was charged with calling out "No King," and other such expressions. They were all examined at the Duke of Portland's office; and, waiting the result of this business, nothing was done in the house of lords till near six o'clock, when Lord Westmoreland, who rode in the carriage with the king, having previously moved that strangers be ordered to withdraw, stated the insult which the king had received; and added, that his majesty, and those who had accompanied him, were of opinion, that the glass of his coach had been broken by a ball from an air-gun, which had been shot from the bow-window of a house adjoining the Ordnance-office, with a view to assassinate him. This statement was corroborated and supported by Lord Onslow, who, as one of the lords of the bedchamber, had also accompanied his majesty.



ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE AND MILITARY CHARACTER OF  
JOHN DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.—With a fine PORTRAIT.

JOHN Churchill, duke of Marlborough, was born at Ashe in Devonshire in 1650. He was eldest son of Sir Winston Churchill, who carried him to court while very young, and where he was particularly favoured by James duke of York, afterwards King James II. when only twelve years of age. In 1666, he was made an ensign of the guards during the first Dutch war; and afterwards improved himself greatly in the military art at Tangier. In 1672, Mr. Churchill attended the Duke of Monmouth, who commanded a body of auxiliaries in the French service, and was soon after made a captain in the duke's own regiment. At the siege of Nimeguen, which happened in that campaign, he distinguished himself so much that he was taken notice of by the celebrated Marshal Turenne, who bestowed on him the name of the *handsome Englishman*.—In 1673, he was at the siege of Maestricht, where he gained such applause, that the King of France made him a public acknowledgment of his service; and the Duke of Monmouth, who had the direction of the attack, told King Charles II. that he owed his life to Mr. Churchill's bravery. In 1681, he married Sarah daughter and co-heiress (with her sister the Countess of Tyrconnel) of Richard Jennings Esq. of Sandrich, in Hertfordshire. The Duke of York recommended him in a very particular manner to the king; who, in 1682, created him baron of Eyemouth in the county of Berwick, in Scotland, and made him colonel of the third troop of guards. A little after King James's accession, he was created baron Churchill of Sandrich in the county of Hertford, and made brigadier-general of his majesty's army in the west; where, when the Duke of Monmouth came to surprise the king's army, while the Earl of Feversham and the majority of the officers were in their beds, he kept

the enemy in play, till the king's forces had formed themselves, and thereby saved the whole army. When James shewed an intention of establishing the Catholic religion in Britain, Lord Churchill, notwithstanding the great obligations he owed him, thought it his duty to abandon the royal cause; but even then did not leave him without acquainting him by letter with the reason of his so doing. Lord Churchill was graciously received by the Prince of Orange; and was by him employed first to re-assemble the troops of guards at London, and afterwards to reduce some lately-raised regiments, and to new-model the army: for which purpose he was invested with the rank and title of lieutenant-general. In 1689, he was sworn one of the privy council, and one of the gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber; and on the 9th of April following was raised to the dignity of earl of Marlborough in the county of Wilts. He assisted at the coronation of their majesties; and was soon after made commander in chief of the English forces sent over to Holland; and here he first laid the foundation of that fame which was afterwards spread over all Europe. In 1690, he was made general of the forces sent to Ireland; where he made the strong garrisons of Cork and Kinsale prisoners of war. The year following, King William shewed the good opinion he had of his conduct, by sending him to Flanders to put all things in readiness, and to draw the army together, against his arrival. In 1692, he was dismissed from all his employments; and, not long after, was with some other peers committed to the tower on an accusation of high treason; which however was afterwards found to be a false and malicious report, the authors of which were punished. Marlborough was soon restored to favour, and in 1698 was appointed governor to the Earl of Gloucester; with this extraordinary

compliment from King William : " My lord, make him but what you are, and my nephew will be all I wish to see him." The same day he was again sworn one of the privy council ; and in July following was declared one of the lords justices of England, for the administration of the government, in which great trust he was three times successively in the king's absence. In 1701 he was appointed general of the foot, commander in chief of the English forces, and ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary at the Hague. Upon the accession of Queen Anne to the throne, he was elected into the order of the garter, declared captain-general of all his majesty's forces, and sent ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Holland. After several conferences about a war, he put himself at the head of the army, where all the other generals had orders to obey him. His exploits in the field have rendered his name immortal. After his first campaign he was created marquis of Blandford and duke of Marlborough, with a pension of five thousand pounds out of the post-office, to devolve for ever upon those enjoying the title of Duke of Marlborough. In 1703, he met Charles III. late emperor, going to Spain, who presented him with a sword set with diamonds. In 1704, having forced the enemy's lines at Schellenberg, he received a letter of thanks from the Emperor Leopold, written with his own hand ; an honour seldom done to any but sovereign princes. After the battle of Blenheim, he received congratulatory letters from most of the potentates in Europe, particularly from the states-general, and from the emperor, who desired him to accept of the dignity of a prince of the empire, which with the queen's leave was conferred upon him by the title of Prince of Mildenheim in the province of Swabia. After the campaign was ended, he visited the court of Prussia, where he laid such schemes as suspended the disputes with the Dutch about King William's estate ; which wise conduct caused the whole confederacy to acknowledge

that he had done the greatest service possible to the common cause. Upon his return to England, the queen, to perpetuate his memory, granted the interest of the crown in the honour and manor of Woodstock and hundred of Wotton to him and his heirs for ever. In 1705 he made a tour to Vienna, upon an invitation of the Emperor Joseph ; who highly caressed him, and made him a grant of the lordship of Mildenheim. After the campaign of 1708, the speaker of the house of commons was sent to Brussels on purpose to compliment him ; and on his return to England he was again complimented in the house of lords by Lord Chancellor Cowper. All his services, however, and all the honours conferred upon him, were not sufficient to preserve him from being disgraced. After the change of the ministry in 1710, his interest daily declined ; and in 1712, on the first day of the new year, he was removed from all his places. Finding all arts used to render him obnoxious in his native country, he visited his principality of Mildenheim ; and several towns in Germany ; after which he returned to England, and arrived there on the day of the queen's death. After being welcomed by the nobility and foreign ministers, he attended on King George I. in his public entry through London, who appointed him captain-general, colonel of the first regiment of foot-guards, one of the commissioners for the government of Chelsea hospital, and master-general of the ordnance. Some years before his death, he retired from public business. He died at Windfold in 1722, aged 73 ; leaving behind him a very numerous posterity, allied to the noblest and greatest families in these kingdoms. Upon his demise all parties united in doing honour or rather justice to his merit, and his corpse was interred the 9th of August following, with the solemnity due to a person who had deserved so highly of his country, in Westminster-abbey. The noble pile near Woodstock, which bears the name of Blenheim-house, may be justly styled his monument : but, without pre-  
tending



tending to the gift of prophecy, one may venture to foretel, that his glory will long serve that structure; and that so long as our histories remain, or indeed the histories of Europe, his memory will live and be the boast of Britain, which by his labours was raised to be the first of nations, as during the age in which he lived he was deservedly esteemed the first of men. If he had foibles, as these are inseparable from human nature, they were so hidden by the glare of his virtues as to be scarcely perceived, or were willingly forgotten. A certain parasite, who thought to please Lord Bolingbroke by ridiculing the avarice of the duke, was stopt short by his lordship; who said, "He was so very great a man, that I forget he had that vice."

Out of a variety of anecdotes and testimonies concerning this illustrious personage, collected in the new edition of the Biographia Britannica, the following selection may serve to illustrate more particularly his disposition and manners.

One of the first things which he did, when very young, was to purchase a box to put his money in; an indication this of the economical, not to say avaricious, temper that accompanied him through life. Dr. Joseph Warton relates, that, on the evening of an important battle, the duke was heard to chide his servant for having been so extravagant as to light four candles in his tent when Prince Eugene came to confer with him. Mr. Tyers, on the other hand, mentioned a circumstance which, if well-founded, redounds to his grace's generosity; though in a different respect it is much to his discredit: it is, that during the rebellion 1715 he sent ten thousand pounds to the Earl of Mar. We consider the story as only a traditional report, which has not in itself any great degree of probability; and therefore we are by no means convinced of its truth. The late Mr. Richardson junior, the painter, hath recorded a pleasing instance of the duke's calmness of disposition; for which, indeed, he was always remarkable. "The duke of Marlborough, (says the writer,) riding out

once with Commissary Marriot, near the commissary's house in the country, it began to rain, and the duke called for his cloak; Marriot having his put on by his servant immediately. The duke's servant not bringing the cloak, he called for it again; but the man was still puzzling about the straps and buckles. At last, it raining now very hard, the duke called again, and asked him, 'what he was about that he did not bring his cloak?' 'You must stay, (grumbles the fellow,) if it rains cats and dogs, till I can get at it.' The duke only turned to Marriot, and said, 'I would not be of that fellow's temper.' The Duke of Marlborough (adds Mr. Richardson) did by nature and constitution what Seneca judged by philosophy ought to be done, *Quid quare ego servi mei hilarius responsum, et contumaciorem vultum, flagellis et compedibus expiem?*

Dr. Swift, in one of his letters to Stella, relates the following particulars concerning the Duke of Marlborough. "I was early this morning with Secretary St. John, and gave him a memorial to get the queen's letter for the first-fruits, who has promised to do it in a very few days. He told me 'he had been with the Duke of Marlborough, who was lamenting his former wrong steps in joining with the Whigs, and said he was worn out with age, fatigue, and misfortunes.' I swear it pitted me; and I really think they will not do well in too much mortifying that man, although indeed it is his own fault. He is covetous as hell, and ambitious as the prince of it: he would fain have been general for life, and has broken all endeavours for peace, to keep his greatness, and get money. He told the queen 'he was neither covetous nor ambitious.' She said, 'if she could have conveniently turned about, she would have laughed, and could hardly forbear it in his face.' He fell in with all the abominable measures of the late ministry, because they gratified him for their own designs. Yet he has been a successful general, and I hope he will continue his command."

Various characters have been drawn

drawn of the duke of Marlborough; most of which we shall omit, as either already sufficiently known, or as not meriting particular notice. That which is given of him by Dr. Swift, in his "History of the four last Years of the Queen," has all the malignity and meanness of a party pamphlet. It is even so foolish as to insinuate, that the duke's military accomplishments were problematical, and that he was destitute of personal courage. Mr. Macpherson's character of his grace is very elaborately composed, and displays no small degree of ability and penetration; though it is not, perhaps, entirely free from prejudice. The historian considers it as a fact, that Lord Churchill, at the time of the revolution, had a design of placing his unfortunate master King James II. a prisoner in the hands of his rival the Prince of Orange. But this story must be regarded as wholly unworthy of credit. It is founded upon suggestions and informations so groundless, and even ridiculous, that it cannot deserve a formal refutation. On the other hand, Mr. Macpherson has done justice to the Duke of Marlborough's prosecution of the war in Flanders, and hath shewn that he conducted it upon the principles of sound wisdom and good policy.

There are two testimonies to the honour of the duke's memory, by two celebrated noble writers, which cannot be passed over. One is by Lord Bolingbroke, in his letters on the Study and Use of History. Speaking of the consternation raised among the allies of the grand confederacy by the death of King William, and of the joy which that event gave to the French, his lordship observes, that "a short time shewed how vain the fears of some and the hopes of others were. By his death, the Duke of Marlborough was raised to the head of the army, and indeed of the confederacy: where he, a new, a private, man, a subject, acquired, by merit and by management, a more deciding influence than high birth, confirmed authority, and even the crown of Great Britain, had given to King William. Not only all the parts of that vast machine, the grand

alliance, were kept more compact and entire, but a more rapid and vigorous motion was given to the whole: and, instead of languishing out disastrous campaigns, we saw every scene of the war full of action. All those wherein he appeared, and many of those wherein he was not then an actor, but abettor however of their action, were crowned with the most triumphant success. I take, with pleasure, this opportunity of doing justice to that great man, whose faults I knew, whose virtues I admired; and whose memory, as the greatest general, and as the greatest minister, that our country, or perhaps any other, has produced, I honour."

The other testimony to the duke's accomplishments is by the Earl of Chesterfield, in his Letters to his Son. "Of all the men (says his lordship) that ever I knew in my life, (and I knew him extremely well,) the late Duke of Marlborough possessed the graces in the highest degree, not to say engrossed them: and indeed he got the most by them; for I will venture (contrary to the custom of profound historians, who always assign deep causes for great events) to ascribe the better half of the Duke of Marlborough's greatness and riches to those graces. He was eminently illiterate; wrote bad English, and spelled it still worse. He had no share of what is commonly called *parts*; that is, he had no brightness, nothing shining in his genius. He had, most undoubtedly, an excellent good plain understanding, with sound judgment. But these alone would probably have raised him but something higher than they found him, which was page to King James II's queen. There the graces protected and promoted him: for, while he was an ensign of the guards, the Duchesse of Cleveland, then favourite mistress to King Charles II. struck by those very graces, gave him 5000*l.* with which he immediately bought an annuity for his life of 500*l.* a-year, of my grandfather Halifax; which was the foundation of his subsequent fortune. His figure was beautiful; but his manner was irresistible, by either  
man



man or woman. It was by this engaging graceful manner that he was enabled, during all his war, to connect the various and jarring powers of the grand alliance, and to carry them on to the main object of the war, notwithstanding their private and separate views, jealousies, and wrongheadednesses. Whatever court he went to (and he was often obliged to go himself to some testy and refractory ones), he as constantly prevailed, and brought them into his measures. The pensionary Heinsius, a venerable old minister, grown grey in business, and who had governed the republic of the United Provinces for more than forty years, was absolutely governed by the Duke of Marlborough, as that republic feels to this day. He was always cool; and nobody ever observed the least variation in his countenance: he could refuse more gracefully than other people could grant; and those who went away from him the most dissatisfied as to the substance of their business, were yet personally charmed with him, and in some degree comforted by his manner. With all his gentleness and gracefulness, no man living was more conscious of his situation, nor maintained his dignity better."

A perusal of the above passage will convince us of the frivolous turn of the Earl of Chesterfield's mind. His lordship, in his zeal to exalt the Duke of Marlborough's external accomplishments, either forgets or depreciates the far greater talents of which he was possessed. There is an observation upon the subject in the British Biography, with which we entirely concur. "That the Duke of Marlborough (says the writer) was eminently distinguished by the gracefulness of his manners, can-

not be questioned: but the Earl of Chesterfield appears to have attributed too much to their influence, when he ascribes—the better half of the Duke of Marlborough's greatness and riches to those graces. That the uncommon gracefulness of his manners facilitated his advancement, and contributed to the success of his negotiations, may readily be admitted; but surely it must have been to much higher qualities that he owed the esteem of King William and of Prince Eugene, his reputation throughout all Europe, and his many victories and conquests. It was not by a polite exterior that he obtained his laurels at Schellenberg, at Oudenarde, at Ramillies, and at Blenheim."

How much the Duke of Marlborough has been celebrated by our poets, is well known by Addison's "Campaign," and Philips's "Blenheim." Mr. Addison, in his Rosamond, has properly assumed another and voluntary occasion of paying a fine compliment to his grace's military exploits, and the glory by which they would be followed. Upon the duke's removal from his places, an ode was inscribed to him by Mr. Somerville, animated with all the zeal of whiggish enthusiasm, and containing some passages that are truly poetical. Another ode, not much inferior in spirit, was addressed to his grace, on occasion of his embarking for Offend in the year 1712.

The Duke of Marlborough's Scots title of baron Eymouth, being to heirs-male, died with himself; but his English title, going to his daughters and their heirs-male, went into the Spencer family, who retain their own surname of Spencer.

#### HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, RECENTLY TAKEN FROM THE DUTCH.

THE Cape of Good Hope has been generally esteemed the most southerly point of Africa, though it is not truly so. In Phillip's Voyage to Botany Bay, we are told, that the land which projects farthest to the south is a point to the east of it, called by the English *Cape Lagullus*; a name cor-

rupted from the original Portuguese *das Agulhas*, which, as well as the French appellation *des Aiguilles*, is descriptive of its form, and would rightly be translated Needle Cape.

On approaching the Cape, a very remarkable eminence may in clear weather be discovered at a considerable distance;

distance; and is called the Table-mountain from its appearance, as it terminates in a flat horizontal surface, from which the face of the rock descends almost perpendicularly. In the mild or summer season, which commences in September and continues till March, the Table Land or Mountain is sometimes suddenly capped with a white cloud, by some called the spreading of the Table-cloth. When this cloud seems to roll down the steep face of the mountain, it is a sure indication of an approaching gale of wind from the south-east; which generally blows with great violence, and sometimes continues a day or more, but in common is of short duration. On the first appearance of this cloud, the ships in Table Bay begin to prepare for it, by striking yards and top-masts, and making every thing as snug as possible. —A little to the westward of the Table Land, divided by a small valley, stands, on the right hand side of Table-bay, a round hill, called the Sugar-loaf; and by many the Lion's Head, as there is a continuance from it contiguous to the sea, called the Lion's Rump; and, when you take a general view of the whole, it very much resembles that animal with his head erect. The Sugar-loaf or Lion's Head, and the Lion's Rump, have each a flag-staff on them, by which the approach of ships is made known to the governor, particularising their number, nation, and the quarter from which they come. To the eastward, separated by a small chasm from the Table-land, stands Charles's Mount, well known by the appellation of the Devil's Tower, or Devil's Head; and so called from the violent gusts of wind supposed to issue from it when it partakes of the cap that covers the Table-land, though these gusts are nothing more than a degree of force the wind acquires in coming through the chasm. When this phenomenon appears in the morning, which is by no means so frequent as in the evening, the sailors have a saying, as the Devil's Tower is almost contiguous to the Table-land, that the old gentleman is going to breakfast; if in the middle of the day, that he is going to dinner; and, if in the evening, that the cloth is spread for supper. Table-mountain

rises about three thousand five hundred and sixty-seven feet above the level of the sea; the Devil's Tower about three thousand three hundred and sixty-eight; and the Lion's Head two thousand seven hundred and sixty-four. In the neighbourhood of the latter lies Constantia, a district consisting of two farms, wherein the famous wines of that name are produced.

The above-described high lands form a kind of amphitheatre about the Table-valley, where the Cape town stands. This is situated at the bottom of the middle height, or Table-mountain; and almost in the centre of the Table-bay, so called from that mountain. — This bay, it is observed in Phillip's Voyage, "cannot properly be called a port, being by no means a station of security; it is exposed to all the violence of the winds, which set into it from the sea; and is far from sufficiently secured from those which blow from the land. The gusts which descend from the summit of Table-mountain are sufficient to force ships from their anchors, and even violently to annoy persons on the shore, by destroying any tents or other temporary edifices which may be erected, and raising clouds of fine dust, which produce very troublesome effects. A gale of this kind, from the south-east, blew for three days successively when Captain Cook lay here in his first voyage; at which time, he informs us, the Resolution was the only ship in the harbour that had not dragged her anchors. The storms from the sea are still more formidable; so much so, that ships have frequently been driven by them from their anchorage, and wrecked at the head of the Bay. But these accidents happen chiefly in the *quaade mousson*, or winter months, from May 14 to the same day of August; during which time few ships venture to anchor here. Our fleet, arriving later, lay perfectly unmolested as long as it was necessary for it to remain in this station. — False-bay, on the south-east side of the Cape, is more secure than Table-bay during the prevalence of the north-west winds, but still less so in strong gales from the south-east. It is, however, less frequented, being twenty-four miles of very heavy road distant from Cape-town,



town, whence almost all necessaries must be procured. The most sheltered part of False-bay is a recess on the west side, called Simon's Bay."

The latest and most particular as well as apparently the most just account of the Cape-town, concerning which voyagers have differed very much from one another in their representations, is that given by Mr. White in his *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*. From the shipping, he observes, the town appears pleasantly situated, but at the same time small, a deception that arises from its being built in a valley with such stupendous mountains directly behind it. On landing, however, you are surprised, and agreeably disappointed, to find it not only extensive, but well built, and in a good stile; the streets spacious, and intersecting each other at right angles with great precision. This exactness in the formation of the streets, when viewed from the Table-land, is observed to be very great. The houses in general are built of stone, cemented together with a glutinous kind of earth which serves as mortar, and afterwards neatly plastered and white-washed with lime. As to their height, they do not in common exceed two stories, on account of the violence of the wind, which at some seasons of the year blows with great strength and fury. For the same reason thatch has been usually preferred to tiles or shingles; but the bad effects that have proceeded from this mode when fires happen, has induced the inhabitants in all their new buildings to give the preference to slates and tiles. The lower parts of the houses, according to the custom of the Dutch nation, are not only uncommonly neat and clean in appearance, but they are really so; and the furniture is rather rich than elegant. But this is by no means the case with the bed-rooms or upper apartments; which are very barely and ill furnished. The streets are rough, uneven, and unpaved. But many of the houses have a space flagged before the door; and others have trees planted before them, which form a pleasant shade, and give an agreeable air to the streets.

The only landing-place is at the east end of the town, where there is a

wooden quay running some paces into the sea, with several cranes on it for the convenience of loading and unloading the boats that come along side. To this place excellent water is conveyed by pipes, which makes the watering of ships both easy and expeditious. Close to the quay, on the left hand, stands the castle and principal fortress; a strong extensive work, having excellent accommodations for the troops, and for many of the civil officers belonging to the company. Within the gates the company have their principal stores, which are spacious as well as convenient. This fort covers and defends the east part of the town and harbour, as Amsterdam fort does the west part. The latter, which has been built since Commodore Johnston's expedition, and whereon both French and Dutch judgment have been united to render it effectual and strong, is admirably planned and calculated to annoy and harass ships coming into the bay. Some smaller detached fortifications extend along the coast, both to the east and west, and make landing, which was not the case before the late war, hazardous and difficult. In a word, Cape-town is at this time fortified with strength, regularity, and judgment.

The governor's house is delightfully situated, nearly in the centre of an extensive garden, the property of the Dutch East-India company, usefully planted, and at the same time elegantly laid out. The governor's family make what use they please of the produce of the garden, which is various and abundant; but the original intention of the company in appropriating so extensive a piece of ground to this purpose was, that their hospital, which is generally pretty full when their ships arrive after long voyages, may be well supplied with fruits and vegetables, and likewise that their ships may receive a similar supply. This garden is as public as St. James's Park; and for its handsome, pleasant, and well-shaded walks, is much frequented by persons of every description, but particularly by the fashionable and gay. At the upper end of the principal walk is a small space walled in for the purpose of confining some large ostriches and a few deer;

deer; and a little to the right of this is a small menagery, in which the company have half a dozen wild animals, and about the same number of curious birds.

There are two churches in the town; one large, plain, and unadorned, for the Calvinists, the prevailing sect; and a smaller one for the Lutherans. The hospital, which is large and extensive, is situated at the upper end of the town, close to the company's garden; where the convalescents reap the benefit of a wholesome pure air, perfumed with the exhalations of a great variety of rich fruit trees, aromatic shrubs, and odorous plants and flowers; and likewise have the use of every production of it.

Besides their hospital, the Dutch East India company have several other public buildings, which tend to improve the appearance of the town. The two principal of these are, the stables and a house for their slaves. The former is a handsome range of buildings, capable of containing an incredible number of horses. Those they have at the Cape are small, spirited, and full of life. The latter is a building of considerable extent, where the slaves, both male and female, have separate apartments, in a very comfortable stile, to reside in after the fatigues and toil of the day; and there are several officers placed over them, who have commodious apartments, and treat them humanely.

The heavy draft-work about the Cape is mostly performed by oxen; which are here brought to an uncommon degree of usefulness and docility. It is not uncommon to see fourteen, sixteen, and sometimes eighteen, in one of their teams; when the roads are heavy, they sometimes, though rarely, yoke twenty; all which the Hottentots, Malays, and Cape slaves, have in the most perfect subjection and obedience. One of these fellows places himself on the fore-part of the waggon, or, when loaded, on the top of the load, and with a tremendous long whip, which from its size he is obliged to hold in both his hands, manages these creatures with inexpressible address. When he finds expedition needful, he can make them keep whatever pace he chooses, either trot or gallop (a gait performed

or kept up with difficulty by European oxen), and that with as much ease as if he was driving horses. They likewise manage horses with the same dexterity; and, to see one of them driving three, four, five, and sometimes six, pair, in hand, with one of these long whips, would make the most complete master of the whip in England cut a despicable figure. Carriages are not very numerous at the Cape, as the inhabitants in general travel in covered waggons, which better suit the roughness of the country. The governor and some few of the principal people keep coaches, which are a good deal in the English stile, and always drawn by six horses.

The inhabitants of the Cape, though in their persons large, stout, and athletic, have not all that phlegm about them which is the characteristic of Dutchmen in general. The physical influence of climate may in some degree account for this; for it is well known that in all southern latitudes the temper and disposition of the people are more gay, and that they are more inclined to luxury and amusements of every kind, than the inhabitants of the northern hemisphere. The ladies are lively, good-natured, and familiar; and from a peculiar gay turn, they admit of liberties that would be thought reprehensible in England, though perhaps they as seldom overleap the bounds of virtue as the women of other countries.

M. Vaillant says, "The men appear to be in general well made, and the women pretty. Almost all the ladies play on the harpsichord; this is their sole accomplishment. They love singing, and are remarkably fond of dancing; on this account it is rare not to see several balls every week. The officers of the ships which touch here, and which lie sometime in the roads, often afford them an opportunity of indulging in this pleasure."

A stranger is astonished to find neither a coffee-house nor a tavern in a place at which so many strangers arrive; but one may procure lodgings in every private house. The usual charge for bed and board is a dollar a day; which is dear enough, when we consider the cheapness of the productions of the country. Fish are very abundant at the



the Cape. Among those most esteemed, the principal are the rooman, a red fish found in the bay of Falso; and the klepvis, which has no scales, and which is caught on the rocks bordering the sea; the steenbraasen, the stompneus, and some others. These excellent fish make a conspicuous figure at every good table. Oysters are very rare here, and none are found any where but in the bay of Falso. Eels however are still more uncommon. To find game, one must go a great many leagues from the Cape. Partridges of different kinds, smaller or larger, and more or less delicious than those of Europe, are found here; but the quail and the snipe do not differ from ours. They are never seen here but in their passage.

Strangers were generally well received at the Cape by those who were in the company's service, and by some others who are private people; but the English were always adored, either on account of the similarity between the

manners of the two nations, or of their very much affecting to be generous. It was an undoubted fact, that, whenever they arrived, every one was eager to offer them lodging. In less than eight days every thing became English in the house upon which they had fixed their choice; and the master, the mistress, and even their children, soon assumed their manners. "Of all nations," says Vaillant; "the French are the least esteemed; the citizens, above all, cannot endure them; and this hatred is often carried so far, that I have heard some of the inhabitants say, they had much rather be taken by the English, than owe their safety to the arms of the French nation." These circumstances, to which we may give full credit as they are related by a Frenchman, may have made the late conquest of this place by the English a more easy achievement.—See p. 283 and 316 of this volume for the official accounts of the capture.

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 273.

**A**FTER the battle of Bunker's Hill, the provincials erected fortifications on the heights which commanded Charlestown, and strengthened the rest in such a manner that there was no hope of driving them from thence; at the same time that their activity and boldness astonished the British officers, who had been accustomed to entertain too mean an opinion of their courage.

The troops, thus shut up in Boston, were soon reduced to distress. Their necessities obliged them to attempt the carrying off the American cattle on the islands before Boston, which produced frequent skirmishes; but the provincials, better acquainted with the navigation of these shores, landed on the islands, destroyed or carried off whatever was of any use, burned the lighthouse at the entrance of the harbour, and took prisoners the workmen sent to repair it, as well as a party of marines who guarded them. Thus the garrison were reduced to the necessity of sending out armed vessels to make prizes indiscriminately of all that came in their way, and of landing in different

places to plunder for subsistence as well as they could.

The congress in the mean time continued to act with all the vigour which its constituents had expected. Articles of confederation and perpetual union were drawn up and solemnly agreed upon; by which they bound themselves and their posterity for ever. These were in substance as follows:

1. Each colony was to be independent within itself, and to retain an absolute sovereignty in all domestic affairs.
2. Delegates to be annually elected to meet in congress, at such time and place as should be enacted in the preceding congress.
3. This assembly should have the power of determining war or peace, making alliances, and in short all that power which sovereigns of states usually claim as their own.
4. The expences of war to be paid out of the common treasury, and raised by a poll-tax on males between sixteen and sixty: the proportions to be determined by the laws of the colony.
5. An executive council to be appointed

pointed to act in place of the congress during its recess.

6. No colony to make war with the Indians without consent of congress.

7. The boundaries of all the Indian lands to be secured and ascertained to them; and no purchases of lands were to be made by individuals, or even by a colony, without consent of congress.

8. Agents appointed by congress should reside among the Indians, to prevent frauds in trading with them, and to relieve, at the public expence, their wants and distresses.

9. This confederation to last until there should be a reconciliation with Britain; or, if that event should not take place, it was to be perpetual.

After the action of Bunker's Hill, however, when the power of Great Britain appeared less formidable in the eyes of America than before, congress proceeded formally to justify their proceedings in a declaration drawn up in terms more expressive, and well calculated to excite attention.

"Were it possible (said they) for men who exercise their reason, to believe that the divine Author of our existence intended a part of the human race to hold an absolute property in and unbounded power over others, marked out by His infinite goodness and wisdom as the objects of a legal domination, never rightfully resistable, however severe and oppressive; the inhabitants of these colonies might at least require from the parliament of Great Britain some evidence that this dreadful authority over them had been granted to that body: but a reverence for our Great Creator, principles of humanity, and the dictates of common sense, must convince all those who reflect upon the subject, that government was instituted to promote the welfare of mankind, and ought to be administered for the attainment of that end.

"The legislature of Great Britain, however, stimulated by an inordinate passion for power, not only unjustifiable, but which they know to be peculiarly reprobated by the very constitution of that kingdom; and despairing of success in any mode of contest where regard should be had to law, truth, or right; have at length, deserting those, attempted to effect their cruel and im-

politic purpose of enslaving these colonies by violence, and have thereby rendered it necessary for us to close with their last appeal from reason to arms. Yet, however blinded that assembly may be, by their intemperate rage for unlimited domination, so to slight justice in the opinion of mankind, we esteem ourselves bound by obligations to the rest of the world to make known the justice of our cause."

After taking notice of the manner in which their ancestors left Britain, the happiness attending the mutual friendly commerce betwixt that country and her colonies, and the remarkable success of the late war, they proceed as follows: "The new ministry finding the brave foes of Britain, though frequently defeated, yet still contending, took up the unfortunate idea of granting them a hasty peace, and of then subduing her faithful friends.

"These devoted colonies were judged to be in such a state as to present victories without bloodshed, and all the easy emoluments of statutable plunder. The uninterrupted tenor of their peaceable and respectful behaviour from the beginning of their colonization; their dutiful, zealous, and useful, services during the war, though so recently and amply acknowledged in the most honourable manner by his majesty, by the late king, and by parliament, could not save them from the intended innovations. Parliament was influenced to adopt the pernicious project; and, assuming a new power over them, has in the course of eleven years given such decisive specimens of the spirit and consequences attending this power, as to leave no doubt of the effects of acquiescence under it.

"They have undertaken to give and grant our money without our consent, though we have ever exercised an exclusive right to dispose of our own property. Statutes have been passed for extending the jurisdiction of the courts of admiralty and vice-admiralty, beyond their ancient limits; for depriving us of the accustomed and inestimable rights of trial by jury, in cases affecting both life and property; for suspending the legislature of one of our colonies; for interdicting all commerce to the capital of another; and, for altering



tering fundamentally the form of government established by charter, and secured by acts of its own legislature, and solemnly confirmed by the crown; for exempting the murderers of colonists from legal trial, and in effect from punishment; for erecting in a neighbouring province, acquired by the joint arms of Great Britain and America, a despotism dangerous to our very existence; and for quartering soldiers upon the colonists in time of a profound peace. It has also been resolved in parliament, that colonists, charged with committing certain offences, shall be transported to England to be tried.

"But why should we enumerate our injuries in detail?—By one statute it was declared, that parliament can of right make laws to bind us in all cases whatever. What is to defend us against so enormous, so unlimited, a power? Not a single person who assumes it is chosen by us, or is subject to our controul or influence; but, on the contrary, they are all of them exempt from the operation of such laws; and an American revenue, if not diverted from the ostensible purposes for which it is raised, would actually lighten their own burdens in proportion as it increases ours.

"We saw the misery to which such despotism would reduce us. We for ten years incessantly and ineffectually besieged the throne as supplicants; we reasoned, we remonstrated with parliament in the most mild and decent language; but administration, sensible that we should regard these measures as freemen ought to do, sent over fleets and armies to enforce them.

"We have pursued every temperate, every respectful, measure; we have even proceeded to break off all commercial intercourse with our fellow-subjects, as our last peaceable admonition, that our attachment to no nation on earth would supplant our attachment to liberty: this we flattered ourselves was the ultimate step of the controversy; but subsequent events have shewn how vain was this hope of finding moderation in our enemies!

"The lords and commons, in their address in the month of February, said, that a rebellion at that time actually existed in the province of Massachusetts

Bay; and that those concerned in it had been countenanced and encouraged by unlawful combinations and engagements entered into by his majesty's subjects in several of the colonies; and therefore they besought his majesty that he would take the most effectual measures to enforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature. Soon after, the commercial intercourse of whole colonies with foreign countries was cut off by an act of parliament; by another, several of them were entirely prohibited from the fisheries in the seas near their coasts, on which they always depended for their subsistence; and large reinforcements of ships and troops were immediately sent over to General Gage.

"Fruitless were all the intreaties, arguments, and eloquence, of an illustrious band of the most distinguished peers and commoners, who nobly and strenuously asserted the justice of our cause, to stay, or even to mitigate, the heedless fury with which these accumulated outrages were hurried on. Equally fruitless was the interference of the city of London, of Bristol, and many other respectable towns, in our favour."

After having reproached parliament, General Gage, and the British government in general, they proceed thus: "We are reduced to the alternative of choosing an unconditional submission to tyranny or resistance by force. The latter is our choice. We have counted the cost of this contest, and find nothing so dreadful as voluntary slavery. Honour, justice, and humanity, forbid us tamely to surrender that freedom which we received from our gallant ancestors, and which our innocent posterity have a right to receive from us. Our cause is just; our union is perfect; our internal resources are great; and, if necessary, foreign assistance is undoubtedly attainable. We fight not for glory or conquest; we exhibit to mankind the remarkable spectacle of a people attacked by unprovoked enemies. They boast of their privileges and civilization, and yet proffer no milder conditions than servitude or death. In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birthright, for the protection of our property acquired by the honest industry of our forefathers and

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our own, against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms; we shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of our aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed—and not before.”

These are some of the most striking passages in the declaration of congress on taking up arms against Great Britain, and dated July 6, 1775. Without inquiring whether the principles on which it is founded are right or wrong, the determined spirit which it shews, ought to have convinced us, that the conquest of America was an event scarcely ever to be expected. In every other respect an equal spirit was shewn; and the rulers of the British nation had the mortification to see those whom they styled rebels and traitors succeed in negotiations in which they themselves were utterly foiled. In the passing of the Quebec bill, ministry had flattered themselves that the Canadians would be so much attached to them on account of restoring the French laws, that they would very readily join in any attempt against the colonists who had reprobated that bill in such strong terms; but in this, as in every thing else indeed, they found themselves mistaken. The Canadians having been subject to Britain for a period of fifteen years, and being thus rendered sensible of the superior advantages of British government, received the bill itself with evident marks of disapprobation; nay, reprobated it as tyrannical and oppressive. A scheme had been formed for General Carleton, governor of the province, to raise an army of Canadians, wherewith to act against the Americans; and, so sanguine were the hopes of administration in this respect, that they had sent twenty thousand stand of arms, and a great quantity of military stores, to Quebec for the purpose. But the people, though they did not join the Americans, yet were found immovable in their purpose to stand neuter. Application was made to the bishop; but he declined to interpose his influence, as contrary to the rules of the popish clergy: so that the utmost efforts of government in this province were found to answer little or no purpose.

The British administration next tried

to engage the Indians in their cause. But, though agents were dispersed among them with large presents to the chiefs, they universally replied, that they did not understand the nature of the quarrel, nor could they distinguish whether those who dwelt in America or on the other side of the ocean were in fault: but they were surprised to see Englishmen ask their assistance against one another; and advised them to be reconciled, and not to think of shedding the blood of their brethren.—To the representations of congress they paid more respect. These set forth, that the English on the other side of the ocean had taken up arms to enslave not only their countrymen in America, but the Indians also; and, if the latter should enable them to overcome the colonists, they themselves would soon be reduced to a state of slavery also. By arguments of this kind these savages were engaged to remain neuter; and thus the colonists were freed from a most dangerous enemy. On this occasion the congress thought proper to hold a solemn conference with the different tribes of Indians. The speech made by them on the occasion is curious, but too long to be fully inserted. The following is a specimen of the European mode of addressing these people.

“Brothers, Sachems, and Warriors!

“We, the delegates from the Twelve United Provinces, now sitting in general congress at Philadelphia, send their talk to you our brothers.

“Brothers and Friends now attend!

“When our fathers crossed the great water, and came over to this land, the King of England gave them a talk, assuring them that they and their children should be his children; and that if they would leave their native country, and make settlements, and live here, and buy and sell, and trade with their brethren beyond the water, they should still keep hold of the same covenant-chain, and enjoy peace; and it was covenanted, that the fields, houses, goods, and possessions, which our fathers should acquire, should remain to them as their own, and be their children’s for ever, and at their sole disposal.

“Brothers and Friends open a kind ear!

“We will now tell you of the quarrel



rel betwixt the counsellors of King George and the inhabitants and colonies of America.

"Many of his counsellors have persuaded him to break the covenant-chain, and not to send us any more good talks. They have prevailed upon him to enter into a covenant against us; and have torn asunder, and cast behind their backs, the good old covenant which their ancestors and ours entered into, and took strong hold of. They now tell us they will put their hands into our pockets without asking, as though it were their own; and at their pleasure they will take from us our charters, or written civil constitution, which we love as our lives; also our plantations, our houses, and goods, whenever they please, without asking our leave. They tell us, that our vessels may go to that or this island in the sea, but to this or that particular island we shall not trade any more; and, in case of our non-compliance with these new orders, they shut up our harbours.

"Brothers, we live on the same ground with you; the same island is our common birth-place. We desire to sit down under the same tree of peace with you; let us water its roots, and cherish the growth, till the large leaves and flourishing branches shall extend to the setting sun, and reach the skies. If any thing disagreeable should ever fall out between us the Twelve United Colonies, and you the Six Nations, to wound our peace, let us immediately seek measures for healing the breach. From the present situation of our affairs, we judge it expedient to kindle up a small fire at Albany, where we may hear each other's voice, and disclose our minds fully to one another."

The other remarkable transactions of this congress were the ultimate refusal of the conciliatory proposal made by Lord North, of which such sanguine expectations had been formed by the English ministry; and appointing a generalissimo to command their armies, which were now very numerous. The person chosen for this purpose was George Washington; a man so universally beloved, that he was raised to such an high station by the unanimous voice of congress: and his subsequent conduct shewed him every way worthy of

it. Horace Gates and Charles Lee, two English officers of considerable reputation, were also chosen; the former an adjutant-general, the second a major-general. Artemus Ward, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam, were likewise nominated major-generals. Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Green, were chosen brigadier-generals at the same time.

Congress had now also the satisfaction to receive deputies from the colony of Georgia, expressing a desire to join the confederacy. The reasons they gave for renouncing their allegiance to Britain was, that the conduct of parliament towards the other colonies had been oppressive; that, though the obnoxious acts had not been extended to them, they could view this only as an omission, because of the seeming little consequence of their colony; and therefore looked upon it rather to be a slight than a favour. At the same time they framed a petition to the king, similar to that sent by the other colonies, and which met with a similar reception.

The success which had hitherto attended the Americans in all their measures, now emboldened them to think not only of defending themselves, but likewise of acting offensively against Great Britain. The conquest of Canada appeared an object within their reach, and one that would be attended with many advantages; and, as an invasion of that province was already facilitated by the taking of Crown Point and Ticonderago, it was resolved if possible to penetrate that way into Canada, and reduce Quebec during the winter, before the fleets and armies, which they were well assured would sail thither from Britain, should arrive. By order of congress, therefore, three thousand men were put under the command of Generals Montgomery and Schuyler, with orders to proceed to Lake Champlain, from whence they were to be conveyed in flat-bottomed boats to the mouth of the river Sorel, a branch of the great river St. Lawrence, and on which is situated a fort of the same name with the river. On the

the other hand, they were opposed by General Carleton governor of Canada; an officer of great activity and experience in war; who, with a very few troops, had hitherto been able to keep in awe the disaffected people of Canada, notwithstanding all the representations of the colonists. He had now augmented his army by a considerable number of Indians, and promised even in his present situation to make a very formidable resistance.

As soon as General Montgomery arrived at Crown Point, he received information that several armed vessels were stationed at St. John's, a strong fort on the Sorel, with a view to prevent his crossing the lake; on which he took possession of an island which commands the mouth of the Sorel, and by which he could prevent them from entering the lake. In conjunction with General Schuyler, he next proceeded to St. John's: but, finding that place too strong, he landed on a part of the country considerably distant, and full of woods and swamps. From thence however, they were driven by a party of Indians whom General Carleton had employed.

The provincial army was now obliged to retreat to the island of which they had at first taken possession; where, General Schuyler being taken ill, Montgomery was left to command alone. His first step was to gain over the Indians whom Gen. Carleton had employed, and this he in a great measure accomplished; after which, on receiving the full number of troops appointed for his expedition, he determined to lay siege to St. John's. In this he was facilitated by the reduction of Chamblee, a small fort in the neighbourhood, where he found a large supply of powder. An attempt was made by Gen. Carleton to relieve the place; for which purpose he with great pains collected about one thousand Canadians, while Colonel Maclean proposed to raise a regiment of the Highlanders who had emigrated from their own country to America.

But, while General Carleton was on his march with these new levies, he

was attacked by a superior force of provincials, and utterly defeated; which being made known to another body of Canadians who had joined Colonel Maclean, they abandoned him without striking a blow, and he was obliged to retreat to Quebec.

The defeat of General Carleton was a sufficient recompence to the Americans for that of Colonel Ethan Allen, which had happened some time before. The success which had attended this gentleman against Crown Point and Ticonderago had emboldened him to make a similar attempt on Montreal; but being attacked by the militia of the place, supported by a detachment of regulars, he was entirely defeated and taken prisoner.

As the defeat of General Carleton and the desertion of Maclean's forces left no room for the garrison of St. John's to hope for any relief, they now consented to surrender themselves prisoners of war; but were in other respects treated with great humanity. They were in number five hundred regulars and two hundred Canadians, among whom were many of the French nobility, who had been very active in promoting the cause of Britain among their countrymen.

General Montgomery next took measures to prevent the British shipping from passing down the river from Montreal to Quebec. This he accomplished so effectually, that the whole were taken: The town itself was obliged to surrender at discretion; and it was with the utmost difficulty that General Carleton escaped in an open boat by the favour of a dark night.

No further obstacle now remained in the way of the Americans to the capital, except what arose from the nature of the country; and these indeed were very considerable. Nothing, however, could damp the ardour of the provincials. Notwithstanding it was now the middle of November, and the depth of winter was at hand, Colonel Arnold formed a design of penetrating through woods, morasses, and the most frightful solitudes, from New England to Canada,



Canada, by a nearer way than that which Montgomery had chosen; and this he accomplished in spite of every difficulty, to the astonishment of all who saw or heard of the attempt. This desperate march, however, cannot be looked upon as conducive to any good purpose. A third part of his men under another colonel had abandoned him by the way, under pretence of want of provision; the total want of artillery rendered his presence insignificant before a place strongly fortified; and the smallness of his army rendered it even doubtful whether he could have taken the town by surprise. The Canadians indeed were amazed at the exploit, and their inclination to revolt from Britain was somewhat augmented; but none of them as yet took up arms in behalf of America. The consternation into which the town of Quebec was thrown proved detrimental rather than otherwise to the expedition, as it doubled the vigilance and activity of the inhabitants to prevent any surprise; and the appearance of common danger united all parties, who, before the arrival of Arnold, were contending most violently with one another. He was therefore obliged to content himself with blocking up the avenues to the town, in order that he might distress the garrison for want of provisions; and even this he was unable to do effectually, by reason of the small number of his men.

The matter was not much mended by the arrival of General Montgomery. The force he had with him, even when united to that of Arnold, was too insignificant to attempt the reduction of a place so strongly fortified, especially with the assistance only of a few mortars and field-pieces. After the siege had continued through the month of December, General Montgomery, conscious that he could accomplish his end no other way than by surprise, resolved to make an attempt on the last day of the year 1775. The method he took at this time was perhaps the best that human wisdom could devise. He advanced by break of day, in the midst of an heavy fall of snow, which covered his men from

the sight of the enemy. Two real attacks were made by himself and Colonel Arnold, at the same time that two feigned attacks were made on two other places, thus to distract the garrison, and make them divide their forces. One of the real attacks was made by the people of New York, and the other by those of New England under Arnold. Their hopes of surprising the place, however, were defeated by the signal for the attack being through some mistake given too soon. General Montgomery himself had the most dangerous place, being obliged to pass between the river and some high rocks on which the Upper Town stands; so that he was forced to make what haste he could to close with the enemy. His fate however, was now decided. Having forced the first barrier, a violent discharge of musketry and grape-shot from the second killed him, his principal officers, and the most of the party he commanded; on which those who remained immediately retreated. Colonel Arnold in the mean time made a desperate attack on the Lower Town, and carried one of the barriers after an obstinate resistance for an hour; but in the action he himself received a wound, which obliged him to withdraw. The attack, however was continued by the officers whom he had left, and another barrier forced: but the garrison, now perceiving that nothing was to be feared except from that quarter, collected their whole force against it; and, after a desperate engagement of three hours, overpowered the provincials, and obliged them to surrender.

In this action, it must be confessed that the valour of the provincial troops could not be exceeded. They had fought under as great disadvantages as those which attended the British at Bunker's Hill, and had behaved equally well. Such a terrible disaster left no hope remaining of the accomplishment of their purpose, as General Arnold could now scarcely number 800 effective men under his command. He did not, however, abandon the province, or even remove to a greater distance than three miles from Quebec, and here he still found means

to annoy the garrison very considerably by intercepting their provisions. The Canadians, notwithstanding the bad success of the American arms, still continued friendly; and thus he was enabled to sustain the hardships of a winter encampment in that most severe climate. The congress, far from passing any censure on him for his misfortune, created him brigadier-general.

While hostilities were thus carried on with vigour in the north, the flame of contention was gradually extending itself in the south. Lord Dunmore, the governor of Virginia, was involved in disputes similar to those which had taken place in other colonies. These had proceeded so far that the assembly was dissolved; which in this province was attended with a consequence unknown to the rest. As Virginia contained a great number of slaves, it was necessary that a militia should be kept constantly on foot to keep them in awe. During the dissolution of the assembly the militia-laws expired; and the people, after complaining of the danger they were in from the negroes, formed a convention, that each county should raise a quota for the defence of the province. Dunmore, on this, removed the powder from Williamsburg; which created such discontents, that an immediate quarrel would probably have ensued, had not the merchants of the town undertaken to obtain satisfaction for the injury supposed to be done to the community. This tranquility, however was soon interrupted; the people, alarmed by a report that an armed party were on their way from the man of war where the powder had been deposited, assembled in arms, and determined to oppose by force any farther removals. In some of the conferences which passed at this time, the governor let fall some unguarded expressions, such as threatening them with setting up the royal standard, proclaiming liberty to the negroes, destroying the town of Williamsburg, &c. which were afterwards made public, and exaggerated in such a manner as greatly to increase the public ferment.

The people now held frequent assemblies. Some of them took up arms with a design to force the governor to restore the powder, and to take the public money into their own possession: but on their way to Williamsburg for this purpose, they were met by the receiver-general, who became security for the payment of the gunpowder, and the inhabitants promised to take care of the magazine and public revenue.

By this insurrection the governor was so much intimidated, that he sent his family on board a man of war. He himself, however, issued a proclamation, in which he declared the behaviour of the person who promoted the tumult reasonable, accused the people of disaffection, &c. On their part they were by no means deficient in recriminating; and, some letters of his to Britain being about the same time discovered, consequences ensued extremely similar to those which had been occasioned by those of Mr. Hutchinson at Boston.

In this state of confusion the governor thought it necessary to fortify his palace with artillery, and procure a party of marines to guard it. Lord North's conciliatory proposal arriving also about the same time, he used his utmost endeavours to cause the people to comply with it. The arguments he used were such as must do him honour; and, had not matters already gone to such a pitch of distraction, it is highly probable that some attention would have been paid to them. "The view (he said) in which the colonies ought to behold this conciliatory proposal, was no more than an earnest admonition from Great Britain to relieve her wants: that the utmost condescendence had been used in the mode of application; no determinate sum having been fixed, as it was thought most worthy of British generosity to take what they thought could be conveniently spared, and likewise to leave the mode of raising it to themselves," &c. But clamour and dissatisfaction were now so universal, that nothing else could be attended to. The governor had called an assembly for the purpose of laying this conciliatory proposal



posal before them; but it had been little attended to. The assembly began their session by inquiries into the state of the magazine. It had been broken into by some of the townsmen; for which reason spring-guns had been placed there by the governor, which discharged themselves upon the offenders at their entrance: these circumstances, with others of a similar kind, raised such a violent uproar, that, as soon as the preliminary business of the session was over, the governor retired on-board a man of war, informing the assembly that he durst no longer trust himself on-shore. This produced a long course of disputation, which ended in a positive refusal of the governor to trust himself again in Williamsburg, even to give his assent to the bills, which could not be passed without it, and though the assembly offered to bind themselves for his personal safety. In his turn he requested them to meet him on-board the man of war, where he then was; but this proposal was rejected, and all further correspondence containing the least appearance of friendship was discontinued.

Lord Dunmore, thus deprived of his government, attempted to reduce by force those whom he could no longer govern. Some of the most strenuous adherents to the British cause, whom their zeal had rendered obnoxious at home, now repaired to him. He was also joined by numbers of black slaves. With these, and the assistance of the British shipping, he was for some time enabled to carry on a kind of predatory war sufficient to hurt and exasperate, but not to subdue. After some inconsiderable attempts on land, proclaiming liberty to the slaves, and setting up the royal standard, he took up his residence at Norfolk, a maritime town of some consequence, where the people were better affected to Britain than in most other places. A considerable force, however, was collected against him; and, the natural impetuosity of his temper prompting him to act against them with more courage than caution, he was entirely defeated, and obliged to retire to his shipping, which was now crowded by the number of those who had incurred the resentment of the provincials.

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In the mean time a scheme of the utmost magnitude and importance was formed by one Mr. Conolly, a Pennsylvanian of an intrepid and aspiring disposition, and attached to the cause of Britain. The first step of this plan was to enter into a league with the Ohio Indians. This he communicated to Lord Dunmore, and it received his approbation; upon which Conolly set out, and actually succeeded in his design. On his return he was dispatched to General Gage, from whom he received a colonel's commission, and set out in order to accomplish the remainder of his scheme. The plan in general was, that he should return to the Ohio, where, by the assistance of the British and Indians in these parts, he was to penetrate through the back settlements into Virginia, and join Lord Dunmore at Alexandria. But, by an accident very naturally to be expected, he was discovered, taken prisoner, and thrown into a dungeon.

After the retreat of Lord Dunmore from Norfolk, that place was taken possession of by the provincials, who treated the loyalists that had remained there with great cruelty; at the same time that they greatly distressed those on-board Lord Dunmore's fleet, by refusing to supply them with any necessities. Nor was this all; the vicinity of the shipping was so great as to afford the rissmen an opportunity of aiming at the people on-board, and exercising the cruel occupation of killing them, in which they did not fail every day to employ themselves. These proceedings at last drew a remonstrance from his lordship; in which he insisted that the fleet should be furnished with necessities, and that the soldiers should desist from the cruel diversion above-mentioned; but, both these requests being denied, a resolution was taken to set fire to the town. After giving the inhabitants proper warning, a party landed, under cover of a man of war, and set fire to that part which lay nearest the shore; but the flames were observed at the same time to break forth in every other quarter, and the whole town was reduced to ashes. This universal destruction, by which a loss of more than 300,000*l.* was incurred, is said to have been occasioned by order of the congress.

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gress itself, that the loyalists might find no refuge there for the future.

In the southern colonies of Carolina the governors were expelled, and obliged to take refuge on-board the men of war, as Lord Dunmore had been: Mr. Martin, governor of North Carolina, on a charge of attempting to raise the back-settlers, consisting chiefly of Scots Highlanders, against the colony. Having secured themselves against any attempts from these enemies, however, they proceeded to regulate their internal concerns in the same manner as the rest of the colonies; and, by the end of the year 1775, Britain beheld the whole of America united against her in the most determined opposition. Her vast possessions of that tract of land, since known by the name of the Thirteen United States, were now reduced to the single town of Boston; in which her forces were besieged by an enemy with whom they were apparently not able to cope, and by whom they must of course expect in a very short time to be expelled. The situation of the inhabitants of Boston, indeed, was peculiarly unhappy. After having failed in their attempts to leave the town, General Gage had consented to allow them to retire with their effects; but afterwards, for what reason does not well appear, he refused to fulfil his promise. When he resigned his place to General Howe in October 1775, the latter, apprehensive that they might give intelligence of the situation of the British troops, strictly prohibited every person from leaving the place, under pain of military execution. Thus matters continued till the month of March 1776, when the town was evacuated.

On the 2d of that month, General Washington opened a battery on the west side of the town, from whence it was bombarded, with a heavy fire of cannon at the same time; and, three days after, it was attacked by another battery from the eastern shore. This terrible attack continued for fourteen days without intermission; when General Howe, finding the place no longer tenable, determined if possible to drive the enemy from their works. Preparations were therefore made for a most vigorous attack on an hill called Dorchester Neck, which the Americans

had fortified in such a manner as would in all probability have rendered the enterprise next to desperate. No difficulties, however, were sufficient to daunt the spirit of the general; and every thing was in readiness, when a sudden storm prevented this intended exertion of British valour. Next day, upon a more close inspection of the works they were to attack, it was thought advisable to desist from the enterprise altogether. The fortifications were very strong, and extremely well provided with artillery; and, besides other implements of destruction, upwards of one hundred hogsheds of stones were provided to roll down upon the enemy as they came up; which, as the ascent was extremely steep, must have done prodigious execution.

Nothing therefore now remained but to think of a retreat; and even this was attended with the utmost difficulty and danger. The Americans, however, knowing that it was in the power of the British general to reduce the town to ashes, which could not have been repaired in many years, did not think proper to give the least molestation; and, for the space of a fortnight, the troops were employed in the evacuation of the place, from whence they carried along with them two thousand of the inhabitants, who durst not stay on account of their attachment to the British cause. From Boston they sailed to Halifax; but all their vigilance could not prevent a number of valuable ships from falling into the hands of the enemy. A considerable quantity of cannon and ammunition had also been left at Bunker's Hill and Boston Neck; and in the town, an immense variety of goods, principally woollen and linen, of which the provincials stood very much in need. The estates of those who fled to Halifax were confiscated; as also those who were attached to government, and had remained in the town. As an attack was expected as soon as the British forces should arrive, every method was employed to render the fortifications, already very strong, impregnable. For this purpose some foreign engineers were employed, who had before arrived at Boston; and so eager were people of all ranks to accomplish this business, that every able-bodied



bodied man in the place, without distinction of rank, set apart two days in the week, to complete it the sooner.

The Americans, exasperated to the utmost by the proceedings of parliament, now formally renounced all connection with Britain, and declared themselves independent. This celebrated declaration was published on the 4th of July 1776. Previous to this a circular letter had been sent through each colony, stating the reasons for it; and such was the animosity now every where prevailing against Great Britain, that it met with universal approbation, except in the province of Maryland alone. It was not long, however, before the people of that colony, finding themselves left in a very dangerous minority, thought proper to accede to the measures of the rest. The manifesto itself was much in the usual style, stating a long list of grievances, for which redress had been often applied in vain; and for these reasons they determined on a final separation; to hold the people of Britain, as the rest of mankind, "enemies in war, in peace friends."

After thus publicly throwing off all allegiance and hope of reconciliation, the colonists soon found that an exertion of all their strength was required in order to support their pretensions. Their arms, indeed, had not, during this season, been attended with success in Canada. Reinforcements had been promised to Colonel Arnold, who still continued the blockade of Quebec; but they did not arrive in time to second his operations. Being sensible, however, that he must either desist from the enterprise, or finish it successfully, he recommenced in form; attempting to burn the shipping, and even to storm the town itself. They were unsuccessful, however, by reason of the smallness of their number, though they succeeded so far as to burn a number of houses in the suburbs; and the garrison were obliged to pull down the remainder, in order to prevent the fire from spreading.

As the provincials, though unable to reduce the town, kept the garrison in continual alarms, and in a very disagreeable situation, some of the nobility collected themselves into a body under the command of one Mr. Beaujeu, in order to relieve their capital; but they were met on their march by the provincials, and so entirely defeated, that they were never afterwards able to attempt any thing. The Americans, however, had but little reason to plume themselves on this success. Their want of artillery at last convinced them, that it was impracticable in their situation to reduce a place so strongly fortified: the small-pox at the same time made its appearance in their camp, and carried off great numbers; intimidating the rest to such a degree, that they deserted in crowds. To add to their misfortunes, the British reinforcements unexpectedly appeared, and the ships made their way through the ice with such celerity, that the one part of their army was separated from the other; and General Carleton, sallying out as soon as the reinforcement was landed, obliged them to fly with the utmost precipitation, leaving behind them all their cannon and military stores; at the same time that their shipping was entirely captured by vessels sent up the river for that purpose. On this occasion the provincials fled with such precipitation that they could not be overtaken; so that none fell into the hands of the British excepting the sick and wounded. General Carleton now gave a signal instance of his humanity:—Being well apprised that many of the provincials had not been able to accompany the rest in their retreat, and that they were concealed in woods, &c. in a very deplorable situation, he generously issued a proclamation, ordering proper persons to seek them out, and give them relief at the public expence; at the same time, lest, through fear of being made prisoners, they should refuse these offers of humanity, he promised, that, as soon as their situation enabled them, they should be at liberty to depart to their respective homes.

The British general, now freed from any danger of an attack, was soon enabled to act offensively against the provincials, by the arrival of the forces destined for that purpose from Britain. By these he was put at the head of twelve thousand regular troops, among whom were those of Brunswick. With this force he instantly set out to the Three Rivers, where he expected that Arnold would have made a stand; but he had fled to Sorel, a place one hundred and fifty miles distant from Quebec, where he was at last met by the reinforcements ordered by congress. Here, though the preceding events were by no means calculated to inspire much military ardour, a very daring enterprise was undertaken; and this was, to surprise the British troops posted here under Generals Frazer and Nesbit; of whom the former commanded those on land, the latter such as were on-board of transports, and were but a little way distant. The enterprise was undoubtedly very hazardous, both on account of the strength of the parties against whom they were to act, and as the main body of the British forces were advanced within fifty miles of the place; besides that a number of armed vessels and transports with troops lay between them and the Three Rivers. Two thousand chosen men, however, under General Thomson, engaged in this enterprise. Their success was by no means answerable to their spirit and valour. Though they passed the shipping without being observed, General Frazer had notice of their landing; and thus, being prepared to receive them, they were soon thrown into disorder, at the same time that General Nesbit, having landed his forces, prepared to attack them in the rear. On this occasion some field-pieces did prodigious execution, and a retreat was found to be unavoidable. General Nesbit, however, had got between them and their boats; so that they were obliged to take a circuit through a deep swamp, while they were hotly pursued by both parties at the same time, who marched for some miles on each side of the swamp, till at last the miserable pro-

vincials were sheltered from further danger by a wood at the end of the swamp. Their general, however, was taken, with two hundred of his men.

By this disaster the provincials lost all hopes of accomplishing any thing in Canada. They demolished their works, and carried off their artillery with the utmost expedition. They were pursued, however, by General Burgoyne; against whom it was expected that they would have collected all their force, and made a resolute stand. But they were now too much dispirited by misfortunes to make any farther exertions of valour. On the 18th of June the British general arrived at Fort St. John's, which he found abandoned and burnt. Chamblee had shared the same fate, as well as all the vessels that were not capable of being dragged up against the current of the river. It was thought that they would have made some resistance at Nut Island, the entrance to Lake Champlain; but this also they had abandoned, and retreated across the lake to Crown Point, whither they could not be immediately followed. Thus was the province of Canada entirely evacuated by the Americans; whose loss in their retreat from Quebec was not calculated at less than one thousand men, of whom four hundred fell at once into the hands of the enemy at a place called the Cedars, about fifty miles above Montreal. General Sullivan, however, who conducted this retreat after the affair of General Thomson, was acknowledged to have had great merit in what he did, and received the thanks of congress accordingly.

This bad success in the north, however, was somewhat compensated by what happened in the southern colonies.—We have formerly taken notice that Mr. Martin, governor of North Carolina, had been obliged to leave his province, and take refuge on-board a man of war. Notwithstanding this, he did not despair of reducing it again to obedience. For this purpose he applied to the Regulators, a daring set of banditti, who lived in a kind of independent state; and, though considered by government as rebels,



rebels, yet had never been molested, on account of their numbers and known skill in the use of fire-arms. To the chiefs of these people commissions were sent, in order to raise some regiments; and Colonel Macdonald, a brave and enterprising officer, was appointed to command them. In the month of February he erected the king's standard, issued proclamations, &c. and collected some forces, expecting to be soon joined by a body of regular troops, who were known to be shipped from Britain to act against the southern colonies. The Americans, sensible of their danger, dispatched immediately what forces they had to act against the royalists, at the same time that they diligently exerted themselves to support these with suitable reinforcements. Their present force was commanded by a General Moore, whose numbers were inferior to Macdonald, for which reason the latter summoned him to join the king's standard under pain of being treated as a rebel. But Moore, being well provided with cannon, and conscious that nothing could be attempted against him, returned the compliment, by acquainting Colonel Macdonald, that if he and his party would lay down their arms, and subscribe an oath of fidelity to congress, they should be treated as friends; but, if they persisted in an undertaking for which it was evident they had not sufficient strength, they could not but expect the severest treatment. In a few days General Moore found himself at the head of 8000 men, by reason of the continual supplies which daily arrived from all parts. The royal party amounted only to 2000, and they were destitute of artillery, which prevented them from attacking the enemy while they had the advantage of numbers. They were now therefore obliged to have recourse to a desperate exertion of personal valour; by dint of which they effected a retreat for 80 miles to Moore's Creek, within 16 miles of Wilmington. Could

they have gained this place, they expected to have been joined by Governor Martin and General Clinton, who had lately arrived with a considerable detachment. But Moore with his army pursued them so close, that they were obliged to attempt the passage of the creek itself, though a considerable body of the enemy, under the command of Colonel Coswell, with fortifications well planted with cannon, was posted on the other side. On attempting the creek, however, it was found not to be fordable. They were obliged therefore to cross over a wooden bridge, which the provincials had not time to destroy entirely. They had however, by pulling up part of the planks, and greasing the remainder in order to render them slippery, made the passage so difficult, that the royalists could not attempt it. In this situation they were, on the 27th of February, attacked by Moore, with his superior army, and totally defeated with the loss of their general and most of their leaders, as well as the best and bravest of their men.

Thus was the power of the provincials established in North Carolina. Nor were they less successful in the province of Virginia; where Lord Dunmore, having long continued an useless predatory war, was at last driven from every creek and road in the province. The people he had on board were distressed to the highest degree by confinement in small vessels. The heat of the season, and the numbers crowded together, produced a pestilential fever, which made great havoc, especially among the blacks. At last, finding themselves in the utmost hazard of perishing by famine as well as disease, they set fire to the least valuable of their vessels, reserving only about 50 for themselves, in which they bade a final adieu to Virginia, some sailing to Florida, some to Bermuda, and the rest to the West Indies.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

## HEROISM OF LADY ARUNDEL, OF WARDOUR CASTLE.

THE account of the noble defence made by Lady Arundel, against her savage and unprincipled besiegers, is told in the "*Mercurius Rusticus*," a kind of newspaper of those times in which it was written; and which, in the narrative of the behaviour of the parliamentary generals, ferocious and insolent as it is, will recal, for the honour of the country where it happened, but imperfectly perhaps to the mind of the reader, the scenes of ravage, desolation, and murder, which have taken place in a neighbouring nation; which, not satisfied with the destruction of its old corrupt government, has raised upon the ruins of it a system of tyranny and of rapine without example in the annals of the world.

"On Tuesday the second of May 1643, Sir Edward Hungerford a Chief commander of the rebels in Wiltshire, came with his forces before Wardour Castle in the same county, being the mansion-house of the Lord Arundel of Wardour. But finding the castle strong, and those that were in it resolute not to yield it up unless by force, called Col. Strode to his help. Both these joined in one made a body of 1300, or thereabout. Being come before it, by a trumpet they summon the castle to surrender: the reason pretended was, because the castle being a receptacle of cavaliers and malignants, both houses of parliament had ordered it to be searched for men and arms: and withal by the same trumpeter declared, that, if they found either money or plate, they would seize on it for the use of the parliament. The Lady Arundel (her husband being then at Oxford, and since that dead there) refused to deliver up the castle; and bravely replied, that she had a command from her lord to keep it, and she would obey his command.

"Being denied entrance, the next day, being Wednesday the third of May, they bring up the cannon with-  
in musquet-shot, and begin the batte-

ry, and continue from the Wednesday to the Monday following, never giving any intermission to the besieged, who were but twenty-five fighting men, to make good the place against an army of 1300 men. In this time they spring two mines; the first in a vault, through which beer and wood and other necessaries were brought into the castle: this did not much hurt, it being without the foundation of the castle. The second was conveyed in the small vaults; which by reason of the intercourse between the several passages to every office, and almost every room, in the castle, did much shake and endanger the whole fabrick.

"The rebels had often tendered some unreasonable conditions to the besieged to surrender; as, to give the ladies, both the mother and the daughter-in-law, and the women and children, quarter, but not the men. The ladies, both infinitely scorning to sacrifice the lives of their friends and servants to redeem their own from the cruelty of the rebels, who had no other crime of which they could count them guilty but their fidelity and earnest endeavours to preserve them from violence and robbery, choose bravely (according to the nobleness of their honourable families from which they were both extracted) rather to die together than live on so dishonourable terms. But now, the castle brought to this distress, the defendants few, oppressed with number, tired out with continual watching and labour from Tuesday to Monday, so distracted between hunger and want of rest, that, when the hand endeavoured to administer food, surprised with sleep it forgot its employment, the morsels falling from their hands while they were about to eat, deluding their appetite: now, when it might have been a doubt which they would first have laded their musquets withal, either powder before bullet, or bullet before powder, had not the maid-servants (va-  
liant,



liant beyond their sex) assisted them, and done that service for them: lastly, now, when the rebels had brought petarrs, and applied them to the garden-doors (which, if forced, open a free passage to the castle), and balls of wild-fire to throw in at their broken windows, and all hopes of keeping the castle was taken away; now, and not till now, did the besieged sound a parley. And though in their Diurnals at London they have told the world that they offered three-score thousand pounds to redeem themselves and the castle, and that it was refused, yet few men take themselves to be bound any thing the more to believe it because they report it. I would Master Case would leave preaching treason, and instruct his disciples to put away lying, and speak every man truth of his neighbour. Certainly the world would not be so abused with untruths as now they are; amongst which number this report was one: for, if they in the castle offered so liberally, how came the rebels to agree upon articles of surrender so far beneath that overture? for the articles of surrender were these:

“First, That the ladies and all others in the castle should have quarter.

“Secondly, That the ladies and servants should carry away all their wearing apparel; and that six of the serving men, whom the ladies should nominate, should attend upon their persons wheresoever the rebels should dispose of them.

“Thirdly, That all the furniture and goods in the house should be safe from plunder; and to this purpose one of the six nominated to attend the ladies was to stay in the castle, and take an inventory of all in the house; of which the commanders were to have one copy, and the ladies another.

“But, being on these terms masters of the castle and all within it, 'tis true they observed the first article, and spared the lives of all the besieged, though they had slain in the defence at least sixty of the rebels. But for the other two they observed them not in any part. As soon as they entered the castle, they first seized upon

the several trunks and packs which they of the castle were making up, and left neither the ladies nor servants any other wearing-clothes but what was on their backs.

“There was in the castle, amongst many rich ones, one extraordinary chimney-piece, valued at two thousand pounds; this they utterly defaced, and beat down all the carved works thereof with their pole-axes. There were likewise rare pictures, the work of the most curious pencils that were known to these latter times or the world, and such that Apelles himself (had he been alive) need not blush to own for his. These in a wild fury they break and tear to pieces; a loss that neither cost nor art can repair.

“Having thus given them a taste what performance of articles they were to expect from them, they barbarously lead the ladies, and the young lady's children, two sons and a daughter, prisoners to Shaftesbury, some four or five miles from Wardour.

“While they were prisoners, to mitigate their sorrows, in triumph they bring five cart-loads of their richest hangings and other furniture through Shaftesbury towards Dorchester: and since that, contrary to their promise and faith, given both by Sir Edward Hungerford and Strode, they plundered the whole castle: so little use was there of the inventory we told you of, unless to let the world know what Lord Arundel lost, and what the rebels gained. This haveck they made within the castle. Without they burnt all the out-houses; they pulled up the pales of two parks, the one of red deer, the other of fallow; what they did not kill they let loose to the world for the next taker. In the parks they burn three tenements and two lodges; they cut down all the trees about the house and grounds. Oaks and elms, such as but few places could boast of the like, whose goodly bushy advanced heads drew the eyes of travellers on the plains to gaze on them; these they sold for four-pence, six-pence, or twelve-pence, a-piece, that were worth three, four, or five, pounds a-piece.

piece. The fruit-trees they pluck up by the roots, extending their malice to commit spoil on what God, by a special law, protected from destruction even in the land of his curse, the land of Canaan; for so we read: 'When thou shalt besiege a city, thou shalt not destroy the trees thereof by forcing an ax against them, for thou mayest eat of them, and thou shalt not cut them down and employ them in the siege; only the trees which thou knowest that they be not trees for meat thou shalt destroy.' Deut. xx. 19, 20. Nay, that which escaped destruction in the Deluge cannot escape the hands of these children of the Apollyon the destroyer. They dig up the heads of twelve great ponds, some of five or six acres a-piece, and destroy all the fish. They sell carps of two foot long for two-pence and three-pence a-piece: they sent out the fish by cart-loads, so that the country could not spend them. Nay, as if the present generation were too narrow an object for their rage, they plunder posterity, and destroy the nurseries of the great ponds. They drive away and sell their horses, kine, and other cattle, and, having left nothing either in air or water, they dig under the earth. The castle was served with water brought two miles by a conduit of lead; and, intending rather mischief to the king's friends than profit to themselves, they cut up the pipe and sold it (as these men's wives in North Wiltshire do bone-lace) at six-pence a-yard; making that waste for a poor inconsiderable sum which two thousand pounds will not make good. They, that have the unhappy occasion to sum up these losses, value them at no less than one hundred thousand pounds. And though this loss were very great, not to be paralleled by any except that of the Countess of Rivers, yet there was something in these sufferings which did aggravate them beyond all example of barbarity which unnatural war till now did produce, and that was Rachel's tears, lamentation, and weeping, and great mourning, a mother weeping for her children, and would not be comfort-

ed, because they were taken from her.' For the rebels, as you hear, having carried the two ladies prisoners to Shaftesbury, thinking them not safe enough, their intent is to remove them to Bath, a place then much infected both with the plague and the small-pox. The old lady was sick under a double confinement, that of the rebels and her own indisposition. All were unwilling to be exposed to the danger of the infection, especially the young lady, having three children with her; they were too dear, too rich a treasure, to be snatched away to such probable loss without reluctance: therefore they resolve not to yield themselves prisoners unless they will take the old lady out of her bed, and the rest by violence, and so carry them away. But the rebels fearing lest so great inhumanity might incense the people against them, and render them odious to the country, decline this; and, since they dare not carry all to Bath, they resolve to carry some to Dorchester, a place no less dangerous for the infection of schism and rebellion than Bath for the plague and the small-pox. To this purpose they take the young lady's two sons, (the eldest but nine, the younger but seven, years of age,) and carried them captives to Dorchester.

"In vain doth the mother with tears intreat that these pretty pledges of her lord's affections may not be snatched from her. In vain do the children embrace and hang about the neck of their mother, and implore help from her, that neither knows how to keep them, nor yet how to part with them: but the rebels, having lost all bowels of compassion, remain inexorable. The complaints of the mother, the pitiful cry of the children, prevail not with them; like ravenous wolves they seize on the prey, and, though they do not crop, yet they transplant, those olive-branches that stood about their parents' table."

Lady Arundel is buried with her lord, near the altar of the very elegant chapel at Wardour Castle, built by the present Lord Arundel.



## SELECT POETRY.

## HUMANITY.

LET misers call Peruvian mines their own;  
Ambition's slaves become a villain's tool;  
Let conqu'rors wade through slaughter to a throne;  
And tyrant kings a trembling nation rule:

When soft Compassion from my melting heart

For human woes or frailties calls a tear,  
The miser's, tyrant's, nor the conqu'ror's,  
part,

Can e'er inspire a pleasure so sincere.

O task delightful! from the cheeks of age  
To wipe the bitter drops of heart-felt woe:  
To hush each care, each cank'ring grief  
alluage,

And on the wounded heart a balm bestow!

Why should Heav'n promise to the soul  
humane

Eternal joy, in regions ever blest,

When Lux'ry's pamper'd sons would seek  
in vain

A greater pleasure to a manly breast!

The vet'ran soldier, or the hardy tar,  
Who ne'er inglorious fled the doubtful  
field,

With front undaunted fac'd the thickest  
war,

Nor knew, when prest by gath'ring fate,  
to yield:

If chance the fatal bullet, wing'd with  
death,

Arrests his glorious course in mid career,  
Buoy'd by this latent hope, resigns his  
breath,

Britons will dry his wife's, his orphan's,  
tear!

Then let not us his dying hopes deceive,  
And basely leave an injur'd heart to ache;  
Let Charity its pressing wants relieve,  
And shew that Britons ne'er their friends  
forfake!

THE PREFERENCE OF VIRTUE  
TO GENIUS.

CELESTIAL guide, man's surest, only,  
friend,

On Virtue, from thy native heav'n de-  
scend!

Breathe o'er my soul the love of noble  
deeds,

Check the proud hopes, which untaught  
Genius breeds.

Ah! rather let me, by thy doctrines led,  
A mean mechanic, earn precarious bread,

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Than high exalt a too conspicuous name,  
And shine my country's glory, and its  
shame!

Could regal state, could awning slaves,  
controul

The tort'ring fear of dying Cromwell's  
soul?

What then avail'd it, that his mighty  
hand

Could to the slavish yoke bow Freedom's  
land?

'Gainst either party that his rage could  
burn,

And conjure slavery from a Charles's urn?

The pallid tyrant, with suspicious fear,

In ev'ry shadow sees th' avenger near:

Nor sleeps secure, tho' cautiously he flies  
From room to room, to shun enquiring  
eyes:

In vain he courts repose on beds of down;

In vain he awes a nation with his frown;

Gains the first object of his soul's desires,

Yet, like a Beaufort, without hope expires.

Wrapt in his virtue, honourably mean,

See happier Richard seek the rural scene;

Contemn the honours of life's spotted  
stage;

Protract a well-spent life to ripe old age.

Ah, happy father! ere thy race was run,

Couldst thou have learnt this lesson from  
thy son:

On wealth nor honours serious thoughts  
bestow—

“Virtue alone is Happiness below!”

## THE COUNTRY CHURCHYARD.

THIS night: and in this solemn hour  
of sleep,

What time the screech-owl sails her heavy  
round,

And clamours discord o'er this specter'd  
ground,

With lowly heart and pensive pace I  
creep—

To view, alas! mortality's sad doom!—

The proud man's trophy'd urn, the hero's  
bust,

Serves but to aggravate the awful gloom:  
The vassal's mingled with the tyrant's dust!

Who but would mock yon sculptur'd skill  
to tell

His scepter'd lineage, or his paltry throne,  
When worth has fled without a passing-  
bell,

And many an honest heart has sunk un-  
known;—

When genius could retreat without a sigh,

Or friend to chaunt a requiem to his clos-  
ing eye!

FOREIGN

## F O R E I G N N E W S.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

HORSE GUARDS, Nov. 20.

**A** DISPATCH, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, from Major-general Leigh, commanding his Majesty's troops in the Leeward Islands, dated Martinico, *October 5, 1795*:

SIR, I have the honour to inclose, for your information, the copy of a letter I have received from Major-general Irving, dated at St. Vincent's, *October 3*, and to congratulate you on the good behaviour of the troops, and on the success of his majesty's arms by the possession of the important post of the Vigie on that island. I have the honour to be, &c. C. LEIGH.

*Copy of a Letter from Major-general Irving, to Major-general Leigh, dated Kingston, St. Vincent's, October 3, 1795.*

SIR, I have the honour to report to your excellency, that, finding this town extremely straightened by the enemy having possession of the Vigie, I judged it expedient to drive them from it, as the only means to relieve it. I informed myself, from those best acquainted with the country, that a height, called Fairbane's Hill, commanded the Vigie; upon this I formed my plan of attack. The grenadiers and light infantry, with four companies of the 40th regiment, were to gain the hill on one quarter, while the 59th regiment, supported by two three-pounders, were to force it on another; the whole marched at three o'clock yesterday morning, so as to be at the object by day-break.

The first division gained the height early in the morning, with considerable loss; the 59th regiment was early within fifty paces of the enemy, and made several attempts to gain the post; but the natural strength of the ground, and the heavy rain that unfortunately fell at day-break, rendered the place inaccessible. The troops having been exposed the whole of the day to great fatigues, and the weather being very unfavourable, from violent showers during the day, and having no possibility of providing the least shelter for them, I thought it most advisable to return to our former quarters for the night. Having sufficient reason to suppose the enemy had abandoned their posts during the night, I ordered out early this morning, a strong detachment of the St. Vincent's rangers, to take possession of it; and I have the

satisfaction to acquaint your excellency, that the British flag now displays itself there. We found all the cannon and ammunition there undestroyed.

Brigadier-general Myers, by his able conduct the whole day, afforded me the most essential service: and the highest praise is due to this army, both officers and men, for the perseverance, discipline, and bravery, they manifested, in sustaining an action from day-break until night, in this climate. I have the honour to be, &c. P. IRVING.

*Return of Killed and Wounded on the 2d instant.*

40th regiment—1 officer, 2 serjeants, 8 rank and file, killed.

54th regiment—1 officer, 1 serjeant, 8 rank and file, killed; 1 officer, 3 serjeants, 2 drummers, and 24 rank and file, wounded; 1 rank and file missing.

59th regiment—1 officer, 1 serjeant, 22 rank and file, killed; 2 officers, 3 serjeants, 1 drummer, and 56 rank and file, wounded.

Martinique rangers—1 rank and file killed; 2 ditto wounded.

*Names of Officers killed and wounded.*

KILLED.

Captain Patrick Blair, of the 59th regiment.

Lieutenant Alexander Scipton, of the 40th ditto.

Lieutenant Samuel Warren, of the 54th ditto.

WOUNDED.

Captain Christopher Seton, of the 54th regiment.

Captain Robert Vaughan, of the 59th ditto.

Ensign Hannagh, of the 59th ditto.

THO. HILL, Aid-de-Camp.

HORSE GUARDS, Nov. 23.

*Extract of a Letter from Major-General Alured Clarke, to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, dated Cape Town, Sept. 23, 1795.*

"I HAVE the honour to inform you that all the India Company's ships, having troops on-board, arrived off the Cape of Good Hope on the 3d, and entered Simon's Bay on the 4th, instant, where I found the admiral in possession of the harbour, and Major-general Craig at Muzzenberg, a post of importance about six miles on the road, with a corps composed of seamen and marines from the fleet, six companies of the 78th regiment, and a detach-



detachment of the company's troops from St. Helena, amounting in all to about nineteen hundred men, and the enemy, who had peremptorily rejected all negotiations, in a state of active hostility against us. Under these circumstances it became necessary to endeavour to effect the execution of our orders without loss of time; and having made the best arrangement we could for transporting our provisions, guns, stores, ammunition, and necessary articles of every kind, by the only means in our power, *men's labour*, we marched on the 14th from Muyzenberg, leaving a sufficient detachment for the protection of our camp and stores at that place.

"The enemy could see all our motions, and, the country through which we were to pass being very favourable to the sort of warfare that it was their business to pursue, (many of them being on horseback, and armed with guns that kill at a great distance,) I had reason to think we might be greatly harassed, and suffer much on our route. Our loss, however, from the precautions taken, and the shyness of the enemy, fortunately proved less than might have been expected, having only one seaman killed and seventeen soldiers wounded in our progress to the post of Wynberg, where the enemy were in force with nine pieces of cannon, and had determined, as we were told, to make serious resistance. But having formed the army from columns of march into two lines, and made a detachment from my right and left to attack both their flanks while I advanced with the main body and artillery (which, much to the credit of Major Yorke, was extremely well conducted and served) against their centre, they found themselves so pressed by us, and at the same time alarmed by the appearance of Commodore Blankett with three ships the admiral had detached into Table-Bay to cause a diversion on that side, of which they were very jealous, that they retired with the loss of a few men from our cannon, before we could gain the top of the hill; from whence we followed them close for two miles; but dark coming on, and great part of the troops being much fatigued by the burdens they carried, and the harassment they met through very swampy ground in the course of the day, I determined to halt for the night in the favourable position I found myself, with the intention of prosecuting my march at day-light next morning.

"In this situation an officer arrived with a flag and letter from Governor Sluysken, asking a cessation of arms for forty-eight hours, to arrange and offer proposals for surrendering the town; but I did not

think it prudent to grant more than twenty-four, in which time every thing was settled agreeable to the articles of capitulation that I have the honour to inclose, whereby the regular troops that formed the garrison become prisoners of war, and his majesty is put into the full possession of the town and colony, which I have hopes will prove acceptable to him, and justify the commendation and report that I think it my duty to make of the meritorious services of all the officers, soldiers, seamen, and marines, that have been employed in this arduous service. The difficulties and hardships that great part of them have experienced are extreme, and the perseverance and cheerfulness with which they were encountered do them the highest credit, and recommend them in the strongest manner to his majesty's favour.

"The general character of Sir George K. Elphinstone, and his ardent desire to serve his country, are too well known to receive additional lustre from any thing I could say upon that subject; but I should do injustice to my own feelings if I did not express the obligations I am under for the ready co-operations and assistance that he afforded upon every occasion, which so eminently contributed to the successful issue of our joint endeavours.

"The arrangements made by Major-general Craig previous to my arrival, and the active services he rendered afterwards, claim my thanks, and furnish the best proof of his having conducted his majesty's service in a manner honourable to himself, and beneficial to his country.—Lieutenant-colonel M'Murdo, deputy quartermaster-general to the expedition, will have the honour of delivering this dispatch. And I take the liberty, sir, of recommending this old and most valuable officer to your good offices, and his majesty's favour."

P. S. The quantity of ordnance, ammunition, naval and other stores, that we find here, is very considerable. The regular troops made prisoners of war amount to about one thousand.

*Killed and Wounded.* Total, 1 rank and file killed; 1 serjeant, 16 rank and file, wounded.

[By the articles of capitulation, the cattle and town were surrendered to his majesty's troops; the military marched out with the honours of war, the officers retaining their swords, with liberty to leave the colony, but not to serve against Great Britain during the war; all property belonging to the Dutch India company, to civil or military servants, to remain free and untouched; the prerogatives and public

lic worship of the colony to be maintained, and the paper money continue its present value, secured on the estates of the Dutch East-India company; no new tax to be levied; the commissary's property to be secured to him.]

Vice-admiral Elphinstone, in a letter dated Table-Bay, Cape of Good Hope, Sept. 23, gives a similar account to that of Major-general Clarke; and speaks in the handsomest terms of the Major-generals Craig and Clarke; of Captains Hardy and Spranger, and all the officers of the sea and marine corps. He has given the command of the Princess to Captain Hardy, a Dutch ship of one thousand tons burthen, mounting twenty-six guns.

The ship *Castor*, and *Star* armed brig, late belonging to the Dutch East-India company, were found at anchor in this Bay; the latter is commissioned, fit for service.

[The Gazette contains a letter from Major-general J. H. Craig, dated Castle of the Cape of Good Hope, Sept. 21st, describing the attack and conquest of the strong post of Muysenburg, with few particulars more than in Admiral Elphinstone's letter. The total killed and wounded from the 7th of August to the 3d of September, were, 3 rank and file killed; Major Monypenny, of the 78th; Captains Hercules Scott, and Dentaffe; Mr. Hart, midshipman; 34 rank and file wounded, and 5 rank and file missing.]

#### HORSE GUARDS, Nov. 28.

DISPATCHES, of which the following are copies, have been received at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State:

*Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfait's Army, Mayence, November 3, 1795.*

MY LORD, I have the honour to inform your lordship, that Marshal Clairfait's advanced guards have followed up the brilliant victory of the 29th with so much vigour, that they have taken forty-three pieces of artillery in addition to the hundred and six mentioned in my last report. They have found the remains of great quantities of ammunition-waggons that had been blown up; stores of all forts, partly damaged, partly serviceable; and wherever their march has been directed they have perceived evident traces of the most precipitate and disorderly flight. General Schaal's dispersed army has gone towards the Moselle.

Marshal Clairfait has occupied Bingen and Kreutzenach, and placed a corps in each position behind the Nahe rivulet as

to cut off all direct communication between Generals Jourdan and Pichegru. He has also a corps at Altzey, whose advanced posts extend nearly to Worms. Part of his troops have returned from the Lahn, and the main army is now collected, and encamped in front of Mayence behind the Seltz rivulet.

On the 30th of October the Austrian general, Boros, surprised and made prisoners seven hundred infantry who occupied the Nieder Wert, an island on the Rhine near Neuwied. And on the 31st the enemy evacuated the strong works that they had erected to cover their bridge at that place, upon finding that the Austrians were preparing to storm them.

Every day fresh instances come to our knowledge of outrages and cruelties exercised by General Jourdan's troops in their retreat. The inhabitants were driven to despair in many places, and fell upon the enemy with forks, scythes, and such other weapons as they could procure.

*Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfait, Bechtheim, November 9, 1795.*

MY LORD, I have the honour to inform your lordship, that an advanced corps of Marshal Clairfait's army, under the command of General Naundorf, obtained an advantage over the enemy on the 3d instant, between Altzey and Kirkheim; and on the 4th the marshal marched from his camp before Mayence; on the 5th he arrived at this place, which is about eight English miles from Worms.

General Wartenleben encamped the same day with a considerable corps in the neighbourhood of Altzey, being covered by two advanced guards, one under the Prince of Hohenlohe, at Bingen, the other under General Naundorf, who occupied Kreutzenach, and masked the enemy's post at Kirkheim. The advanced guard of the main army, commanded by General Kray, encamped near Pfdensheim, upon the Pfrim Rivulet, drawing its advanced posts from the Rhine till they formed those of General Naundorf.

On the 6th instant General Naundorf marched with part of his troops to take possession of the principal pass that leads from Kreutzenach to Kaiferslautern. He attacked the enemy at Rockenhausen, who, after being dislodged from a very strong intrenched post at that place, abandoned Falkenstein, and retired in great confusion behind Winweiler.

The loss of the Austrians on this occasion was not great. The enemy had about two hundred taken prisoners, and left about three hundred dead on the field. I have the honour to be, &c.

C. CRAUFURD.

EXTRA.



## EXTRAORDINARY GAZETTE.

[This Gazette contains a continuation of the operations of the Austrians against the French till the TAKING OF MANHEIM by the latter, of which the following is the official account.]

*Extract of a Letter from Robert Crauford, Esq. to Lord Grenville, dated Head Quarters of General Wurmser's Army near Mannheim, Nov. 23, 1795.*

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that the Commandant of Mannheim having, the night before last, sent out an officer to General Wurmser, to propose terms for the surrender of the place, a capitulation was concluded yesterday morning, by which it was agreed, that the garrison should march out with the usual honours, lay down their arms on the glacis, and become prisoners of war.

As soon as the capitulation was signed, the Austrian troops occupied the outworks, and two of the gates of the town, viz. the Heidelberg and the Rhine gates.

The garrison marched out this morning, and the place was taken possession of by General Wurmser, in the name of his imperial majesty, after a siege of only twelve days of open trenches.

The French troops, which by this event are become prisoners of war, consist of ten half brigades, or thirty battalions, of infantry, a proportionate corps of artillery, sappers, miners, &c. and a squadron of hussars, making in the whole 4 generals, 389 officers, and 9949 non-commissioned men and privates.

This great diminution of force must be severely felt by the enemy, at a time when his armies are so weakened and dispirited, and their strength rapidly declining by the immense desertion which daily takes place.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, Nov. 24.

*Extract of a Letter from Admiral Sir John Laforey, Bart. Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Leeward Islands, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Martinique, October 8, 1795.*

ON the 30th ult. the Vanguard, cruising to windward of Desceada, took a frigate belonging to the convention of France, called the Superbe, mounting twenty-two guns, and one hundred and six men, the rest having been put into prizes, two of

which she had with her, viz. a Guineaman, which escaped, and a brig from Barbadoes, bound to Newfoundland, which was taken.

*Extract of a Letter from Admiral Peyton, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels in the Downs, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated November 22, 1795.*

You will please to acquaint their lordships, that his majesty's sloop Ferret returned here this morning from cruising to the westward, and has brought in with her a small lugger-privateer of four guns, four-pounders, and swivels, with thirty men.

I understand the said privateer left Calais on Thursday morning last, and was taken by the Ferret the same night, off Blacknefs.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, Dec. 8.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Fairfax, of his Majesty's Ship Republic, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated the 3d instant, Texel S. S. by E. distant 25 or 26 leagues.*

This morning we saw a cutter which we chased and took in the afternoon; her name is Perone, of eight guns and thirty-six men, three days from Dunkirk, and has taken nothing.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, Dec. 12.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain Luke, of his Majesty's Ship Caroline, to Evan Nepean, Esq. in the North Seas; the Texel bearing S. S. E. 20 leagues. Received the 11th instant, without Date.*

You will be pleased to inform their lordships, that his majesty's Ship Caroline, under my command, part of Admiral Duncan's Squadron, having discovered on the 1st of December, two strange sail, bearing S. four leagues, the admiral made our signal to chase; this happened about eight in the morning. At half past eleven A. M. came within gun-shot, when we found the chase shewed French colours, and fired a shot to windward. The Caroline immediately fired to bring her to, but she hauled her wind from us, and fired a broadside. In the course of an hour she struck: she proves to be the Pandora, a national brig, three days from Dunkirk, carrying 108 men, and 14 six-pounders. The other named Le Septime, mounting 12 four-pounders, got off while we were taking out the prisoners.

## THE BUDGET.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, Dec. 7.

THE Chancellor of the Exchequer moved the order of the day for the house to resolve itself into a committee

of ways and means of the whole house on the supplies.

The house accordingly resolved into the said committee, Mr. Hobart in the chair.

The

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that he was perfectly aware, at so early a period of the session, of the difficulty of forming an accurate account of the expences of the year, so as to enable the house to give a satisfactory answer to their constituents of the burdens to be laid on them, and of the general articles on which those burdens were to be laid; he had, however, powerful motives not to delay laying this before them. He recurred to the opening of the present session of parliament, and to the approaching prospect of peace, and that nothing was more desirable than the means to fulfil and obtain these ends; he was happy, however, that that house was prepared for all extremities, and to act vigorously, until peace could be obtained on grounds that were good and acceptable. He adverted next to the difficulties of the enemy to continue their present enormous expence. While, however, we were anxious for peace, it was necessary that we should continue our exertions for the next year, to carry on a war for the support of our liberties, by taking the best method of supporting ourselves through our difficulties until that period arrived, when it would be necessary for the enemy to terminate the war on just and equitable grounds, and on terms acceptable to us. He requested a patient attention, while he laid that part of his duty before the house, the amount of which would be contained under each particular head. The first head was the Navy, the ordinary expences of which amounted to 5,700,000*l.* sterling; the ordinaries and repairs 1,300,000*l.* the number of seamen was greater by 10,000 than last year, and the excess 757,000*l.* the total of the expences of the navy therefore amounted to 7,000,000*l.* sterling. The next head was the Army, the total expences of which amounted to 6,104,000*l.* last year there had been an overplus of 1,000,000*l.* and which, omitting the difference, he would state at 900,000*l.* which had been paid for foreign troops. Last year there had been paid for the different French corps 427,000*l.* the extraordinaries of the army, including the Sardinian treaty, that had not yet been voted, amounted to 2,616,000*l.* and that 350,000*l.* more would be necessary; the total, therefore, including the Sardinian subsidy, would be in round numbers 6,000,000*l.* and in the army there would be a total saving over the last year of 1,000,000*l.*

The next head was that of the ordnance, the total expence of which amounted to 1,744,000*l.* and which was less than the last year by 77,000*l.* Next, there were the miscellaneous expences;

under which head were comprehended various articles of expence, such as money given to the French refugee clergy, the expences of Hastings's trial, secret service, &c. The whole of this amounted for this year to 360,000*l.* That sum exceeded by 151,000*l.* the estimate of miscellanies for the preceding year; and that increased expence was occasioned by foreign secret service. The next expence was that incurred by replacing of Exchequer-bills to the amount of 3,500,000*l.* out of 6,000,000*l.* of which the whole of the Exchequer-bills that had been issued consisted.

There was, besides, an addition of 200,000*l.* to be applied to the reduction of the National Debt, which, even during the pressure of the war, had been granted; and he would again move for the same sum for the ensuing year.

The charges from grants was another branch of the expences of the year. When he had brought forward the Budget of the last year, he had moved for a loan of eighteen millions, and at the same time stated a deficiency that was likely to arise in a loan expected from the East-India company. He had at that time raised taxes for 19,000,000*l.* He had stated that 400,000*l.* in the extraordinaries had been advanced to the Austrian general. The advance, however, was 550,000*l.* In this there was a considerable deficiency: and the whole of the deficiencies of grants amounted to 2,333,000*l.* This was certainly an unusual sum; but in it was to be included the deficiency of land and malt.

The whole of the supply for the ensuing year, allowing for two millions of Exchequer bills, would amount to 27,363,000*l.* As to the means of producing this sum, the first was the land and malt 2,500,000*l.* Exchequer bills to the amount of 200,000*l.* The growing produce of the consolidated fund was the next source: this amounted to 220,000*l.* up to the 5th of January 1796. The whole produce of last year was 13,598,000*l.* allowing what had been paid to seamen. The revenue up to the 5th of January last was 13,953,000*l.* a larger sum certainly than that raised during the present year. And the average revenue of these three last years of war might be 13,933,000*l.* The permanent charges were eleven millions.

The amount of the Dutch prizes was another means of supplying the exigencies of the present year. His majesty was on that day most graciously pleased to communicate to the house his wish that this property should be applied to the public service. These goods had been taken and detained previous to the declaration of hostilities between this country and



and the United Provinces; on that account they were not the property of the captors, but of right belonged to the crown. Notwithstanding this, it was the intention of government to grant a reasonable compensation to those who had captured any property belonging to the Dutch; and that compensation was to be regulated in proportion to the degree of labour, exertion, and danger, incurred in making these captures. There were some in which great gallantry had been exerted, others in which there were no difficulties at all; but the largest proportion of them were detained by ministerial acts. It was not easy to ascertain the amount of these goods; but he had every reason to hope that they could not amount to less than one million, after allowing to the captors a reasonable compensation for their trouble and services. It was the duty of the house to avail itself of this sum, which would encrease the growing produce of the sinking fund to 3,595,000*l*.

Of the expences of the ensuing year, one million was already provided by a vote of last year; and the taxes for the ensuing year might be paid by that, but he conceived it better to reserve it for some contingency, and find taxes which should pay the interest of the loan of 18,000,000*l*. This was providing a fund to carry on the war, in case it should be necessary, during the whole of the ensuing year, and pay the expences already incurred, and such as might hereafter be incurred. The navy debt was certainly very largely increased; but that proceeded from circumstances that were less to be regretted, because the exertion that had been used rendered our navy triumphant. The expence had also been encreased by the number of transports that were employed to convey the troops of the country from one place to another. The increase in December 1794, was not less than 5,000,000*l*. and at present it exceeded by 1,500,000*l*. the sum at which it had at that time been estimated last year. The purchase of the East India-ships for the king's service, together with the transport service, was another source of expence which would not exist next year, and he hoped it would be less than it by 2,500,000*l*. He said he thought it his duty to look to the army extraordinaries. The causes which had produced the expence in them did no longer exist, namely, the great armies and operations kept up on the continent. He did not believe that the extraordinaries for the next year would exceed two millions. Another source of expence was the ample bounties that were to be given for the importation of corn. He did not suppose that it would come to as much as had been

held out in the offers made by parliament, but he did not think it would be stating it high to set it down at one million, during the course of the next year. The extraordinary expences, then, amounting in all to about five millions, were of a very different kind from those of former years.

The lottery formed another fund which would produce 300,000*l*. yearly. The money that had been given to American loyalists out of the lottery was likely to cease in course of time, as the last instalments would soon be paid; and that fund would go to pay those expences he had last stated, the bounty on corn, &c.—As to the objections which gentlemen had made to the mode of raising money by a lottery in time of peace, it was time enough to consider them hereafter; and, in time of peace, parliament might adopt any regulations in that particular which it should think proper. At present he would only say, that it was one of the least burthensome modes of procuring 300,000*l*. a year for the service of the state.

The whole of the expences of the year are as follows:

The whole of the navy	£. 7,813,000
The army	6,104,000
French corps	300,000
Sardinian subsidy	200,000
The extraordinaries of the army	2,646,000
The sum necessary to complete ditto for the whole year, since the last payment, up to the 5th Jan.	
1795	350,000
Ordnance	1,744,000
Miscellanies	360,000
To the sinking fund	200,000
Deficiency of grants	2,333,000
Ditto of land and malt	535,000
Exchequer bills	3,500,000
Bounty for importation of corn	1,000,000
Deficiency of the Austrian general	400,000
	<hr/> 27,485,000

#### NEW TAXES.

In order to meet these various expences, a new loan of 18 millions of money was necessary. That he had already agreed for, and for which he was to pay at the rate of 4*l*. 13*s*. 6*d*. interest on every hundred pounds. It was necessary to add one per cent. more to the interest, in order to form a capital for the sinking fund. That would cause the interest of the loan to be about 6 per cent. and that part appropriated to the sinking fund would amount to 1,111,500*l*. annually. In order to provide for this interest, it would be necessary to lay on new taxes. These

he trusted would press upon the people as little as possible. First of all, there would be taxes on all species of collateral succession; on assessments an increase of ten per cent. a double amount of taxes on all horses kept for pleasure, and on all other horses, to a certain extent, employed in the business of agriculture or otherwise; on tobacco, printed cottons, salt; a diminution of bounties and drawbacks on the exportations of sugars; and these were the general outlines, which he thought it his duty to lay before them.

First, as to taxes on collateral succession, this species of taxation had originated in a country that had nearly equalled this in commercial consequence, he alluded to Holland. Under this might be comprehended all legacies, which, computing the degree of proximity, would be rated at from one to two per cent. first then, to enforce the principal of two per cent. on all legacies above a certain sum, residuary legacies to extend to the following calculation, making some trifling variations, viz. from two to four and from four to six per cent. beginning with first cousins and continuing to perfect strangers, observing a regular proportion. This sort of property was, he said, most connected with the existence of the country: and, surely it could not be thought unreasonable to extend it to landed property of the country also.

The mode of assessing this tax would be, when the relation was not wide, two per cent. in case of a first cousin 3 per cent. second cousin 4 per cent. and the more remote in proportion up to the absolute stranger, who shall pay 6 per cent. and this tax to be paid in proportion to the degree of consanguinity.

The landed property amounted, on the lowest calculation, to 25,000,000*l.* the annual rent at 28 years purchase would amount to 76,000,000*l.* and to add the personal property of 600,000,000*l.* the total amount would be 1,300,000,000*l.* Taking legacies left by will at one-third of the whole, and the amount of legacies to collaterals to less land property, one-fifth—then taking one-fourth as the medium amount, the amount might be computed at 325,000,000*l.* which would produce

annually a sum of 264,000*l.*—the amount of the assessed taxes 140,000*l.*

The next article of taxation was horses. There was already a tax of 10*s.* on every single horse kept for pleasure. This tax should therefore be increased in proportion until the number reached six, when the amount should be doubled, which would make 20*s.* for every horse—this he computed at 216,000*l.* On every horse employed in agriculture, or otherwise, 2*s.* per annum—this could not be complained of by farmers, as lately their produce had risen to a very great price, and they could easily afford it. The number of horses thus employed he computed at one million, which would produce a revenue of 100,000*l.*

The next article of taxation was tobacco; the duty on which he would augment one-fourth per pound, the amount of which would be 170,000*l.* Next, printed cottons, the duty on which he would propose raising twopence-halfpenny per yard—the duty at present was threepence-halfpenny, and this rise of twopence-halfpenny would be six-pence, which would amount to 135,000*l.* The next article was salt, which he would state at 32,000*l.* A diminution of one-fourth of the drawback on the exportation of sugar, which would amount to 180,000*l.* having last year amounted to between 7 and 800,000*l.* The total amount would therefore be 1,123,000*l.* to be raised by these taxes.

All the new taxes are stated in the following order:

An additional duty on legacies	£.250,000
Ten per cent. upon all assessed taxes	140,000
A double tax upon all pleasure horses, and 2 <i>s.</i> per head on all other horses	316,000
Additional duty on tobacco, 4 <i>d.</i> per lb.	170,000
Additional duty of 3½ <i>d.</i> on printed calicoes	135,000
By a regulation of the salt duty	32,000
Diminution of one-fourth of the drawback on sugar	180,000
Total of the new taxes	1,123,000

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[The annexed View of the hasty Retreat of the French Troops before the Allied Army, in October last, is to embellish, in its proper Place, the History of the Wars of England herewith given.]



HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL ANECDOTES OF THE RIGHT  
HON. CHARLES JAMES FOX.—With a fine PORTRAIT.

THIS celebrated orator is the second son of Henry, the first Lord Holland, created a peer of Great Britain in 1762, by Lady Georgina Caroline, eldest daughter of his Grace the late Duke of Richmond. He was born the thirteenth of January, 1749, and is descended by the mother's side from the famous but unfortunate House of Stuart. He is consequently not only allied to the present reigning family, but also to most families of the highest rank, as well as the greatest antiquity and influence, in England. But, had Mr. Fox not come into the world under all the advantages of a noble genealogy and an ample fortune, yet his natural endowments are such as must have distinguished him in any situation whatever. His father successively filled the offices of secretary at war, secretary of state, and paymaster general of his majesty's forces, in which latter situation, he is said, on account of the length of the war, to have amassed a prodigious fortune, Charles James Fox, who was his second son, was always his favourite. The celebrity which marked his progress in the acquisition of classical learning at Eton College, where he is said to have mastered every talk and science by a kind of intuition, procured him an immediate and a decided superiority in every class he joined. His public studies at this celebrated school were under the direction of Doctor Barnard. His private tutor was Doctor Newcombe, the present bishop of Waterford, who derives more fame, perhaps, from such a fortunate circumstance than from any preferment the church can afford him. From Eton Mr. Fox went to Oxford, where the brilliancy of his parts, the urbanity of his manners, and the vivacity of his conversation, were soon equally conspicuous and popular. After remaining a short time in these venerable shades of literature and philosophy, he obtained his father's permission to travel; and cer-

tainly no one was ever better qualified to derive instruction from such an endless succession of novelty and variety as travelling affords.

The parliamentary history of Mr. Fox is equally voluminous and miscellaneous. His first career commenced in opposition to the people, and he was appointed one of the commissioners of the treasury in 1772, but differing in opinion with Lord North, the then minister, he was suddenly and laconically dismissed therefrom by a note delivered to him by the doorkeeper of the house of commons.

Mr. Fox now became one of the most strenuous opposers of Lord North's administration, inasmuch that he was styled "*the man of the people*;" and he continued to have that title till his famous coalition with Lord North, when he was made one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, which office he resigned in a few months, upon the death of the Marquis of Rockingham, and held again upon the Duke of Portland's being made first lord of the treasury in 1783. He again quitted it at the end of the year, when the Portland administration was turned out by his India bill, and has ever since been in opposition to government. These are the only places he has ever held, except the clerkship of the pells in Ireland, to which he succeeded as part of his patrimony on the death of his brother, the late Lord Holland, 1774, and disposed of to government in 1775, when it was given to the present Lord Hawkesbury.

Mr Fox first sat in the house of commons for Midhurst in 1768, he was afterwards chosen for Malmesbury in 1774; and has since the year 1780 been a member for the city of Westminster, for which he has stood several of the severest contests ever known in the electioneering annals of this country. On the subject of one, that in 1784, the merits of which were brought before the house, Mr. Hardinge observed, there had been *forty-*

eight speeches, besides many by-battles fought with great spirit.

The popularity which Mr. Fox gained by his uniform and spirited opposition to Lord North during the American war, was equal, perhaps, to any thing ever possessed by an individual. No one ever stood higher in the opinion of the people. His coalition, however, with this nobleman in the year 1783, lost him, as Mr. Wilberforce observed, "the confidence of the country," and threw him into that shade, from which no length of time, no retribution, can possibly recover him. Nor can this be thought at all surprising, when it is considered, that it was wholly in pointing out the political enormities of this minister, and in solemnly promising to bring him to the scaffold, that he had raised himself so high in the estimation of the public. A thousand times he had declared, that he detested Lord North not merely as a minister, he abhorred him equally as a man. For ten years, and upwards, he called him by every vile and opprobrious name, and accused him of every crime that could be crowded within the scope of human turpitude. Yet, when every eye was eager to view this gigantic champion in the cause of political virtue stretch forth his up-lifted arm to drag the great state delinquent to the scaffold, he was found apollate enough to form one of the closest unions with him, and even to take him to his bosom with all his moral and political sins on his head, for Mr. Fox even suffered Lord North to declare in the house, "that no mean concession had been made on his side. He appealed to his right honourable friend, if he had sacrificed any one opinion he had formerly held."

This shameful conduct struck a general alarm as well as horror. In and out of parliament it was equally condemned and reprobated. "It surely," said Mr. Pitt, "would have staggered even the faith of the most credulous, had any one, for example, affecting a spirit of prophecy, predicted, that two great parliamentary characters, who had always moved in different lines, who were known to

each other only by their political animosities, whose opposition was avowed, whose resentments seemed implacable, and their hatred fixed, should, in a mysterious moment, coalesce, and unite in the same sentiments!"

Indeed, by a very great and respectable part of the house, this execrable coalition, which opened a perfectly new scene of things, was most indignantly received. Mr. Powys said, "This was the age of strange confederacies. The world had seen great and arbitrary despots stand forth the protectors of an infant republic—France and Spain had combined to establish the rising liberties of America; and the house now surveyed the counterpart of this picture—a monstrous coalition of opposite principles—the lofty assertor of the royal prerogative joined in alliance with the worshippers of the majesty of the people." Thus the public confidence in Mr. Fox was lost, and universal experience confirms the observation of a celebrated writer, "that the public confidence once lost is never completely regained." The coalition was the theme of universal and passionate execration. All those bitter and opprobrious expressions of contumely and reproach against Lord North, with which the speeches of Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke had been for so many years filled, were now recalled to the general recollection, and excited a degree of anger, indignation, and amazement, which had not been equalled since the memorable and infamous defection of Mr. Pulteney. Hence it was universally branded as a gross and palpable sacrifice of every sentiment of honour, consistency, and rectitude, on the altar of ambition, interest, and revenge.

One of the most distinguished measures of Mr. Fox and his new colleague, was the introduction of their India bill. This famous bill proposed no less than to take from the directors and proprietors the entire administration, not of their territorial merely, but of their commercial, affairs, and to vest the management and direction of them in the hands of



of seven commissioners named in the bill, and irremovable by the crown, except in consequence of an address of either house of parliament. These commissioners and directors were immediately to enter into possession of all lands, tenements, books, records, vessels, goods, merchandize, and securities, in trust for the company.

This act, by which the charter of the company was entirely superseded, was to continue in force four years, that is, till the year after the next general election?—and it was accompanied by a second bill enacting very wise and equitable regulations for the future government of the British territories in Hindostan. The astonishment excited by the disclosure of this plan was very great; and while it was on one side of the house extolled as a master-piece of genius, virtue, and ability, it was on the other reprobated as a deep and dangerous design, fraught with mischief and ruin. “India, it was true,” said Mr. Pitt, “wanted reform, but not such a reform as this;—it wanted a constitutional alteration, and not a tyrannical one, that broke through every principle of equity and justice. By the bill before the house, an attack was made on the most solemn charters: it pointed a fatal blow against the faith and integrity of parliament: it broke through every tie by which man was bound to man. The principle of this bill once established, what security had the other public companies of the kingdom? What security had the bank of England? What security had the national creditors, or the public corporations? Or indeed, what assurance could we have for the Great Charter itself, the foundation of all our liberties? It would be folly in the extreme to suppose, that the principle, once admitted, would operate only on the present occasion. Good principles might sleep, but bad ones never. It was the curse of society, that when a bad principle was once established, bad men would always be found to give it its full effect. The bill under consideration included a confiscation of the property, and a disfranchisement of the members, of the

East-India company; all the several articles of whose effects were transferred by violence to strangers. Imagination was at a loss to guess at the most insignificant trifle that had escaped the harpy jaws of a ravenous coalition. On the other hand, it was with equal eloquence and ability vindicated by Mr. Fox, who with warmth declared, “that he would risk upon the execution of this bill whatever was most dear to him—whatever men most valued: the character of integrity, of talents, of honour, of present reputation and future fame;—these he would stake upon the constitutional safety, the enlarged policy, the equity and wisdom, of this measure.” A petition however was presented from the company, representing the measure as subversive of their charter, and operating as a confiscation of their property, without charging against them any specific delinquency, without trial, without conviction; a proceeding contrary to the most sacred privileges of British subjects; and praying to be heard by counsel against the bill. The city of London also presented a strong petition to the same effect. This bill, however, was carried with rapidity through all its stages in the house of commons by decisive majorities; and on the 9th of December, Mr. Fox, attended by a numerous train of members, presented the bill at the bar of the house of lords. On this occasion, Earl Temple declared, “that he was happy to embrace the first opportunity of entering his protest against so infamous a bill; against a stretch of power so truly alarming, and that went near to seize upon the most inestimable of our constitution—our chartered rights.”

On the 17th of the same month, after several violent debates, it was moved, that the bill be rejected. On this occasion, Lord Camden distinguished himself by a most able and eloquent speech, against a measure which his lordship affirmed to be in the highest degree pernicious and unconstitutional. “To divest the company of the management of their own property and commercial concerns was, his lordship said, to treat

them as ideots; and he regarded the bill not so much in the light of a commission of bankruptcy, as of lunacy. After many similar observations, the motion of rejection was carried by 95 against 76 voices: and at midnight, on the 18th of December, a royal message was sent to the coalition secretaries, demanding the seals of their several departments; and early the next morning letters of dismissal, signed Temple, were sent to the other members of the cabinet. In a few days after, Mr. Pitt was declared first lord of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer; which terminated this very short administration of Mr. Fox. The India bill, after it had been completely developed and explained, was almost universally condemned as a measure in the highest degree arbitrary and oppressive, and with consummate artifice calculated to perpetuate the power of an administration who were the objects of the national detestation. It is nevertheless a supposition absolutely inadmissible, that such men as the Duke of Portland, Lord John Cavendish, and Mr. Fox, had concerted a measure insidiously adapted to serve their own purpose—knowing or believing the same to be inimical to the essential interests of their country. In fact, no plan for the government of India could be framed which was not liable to very great objection. The bill of Mr. Fox was primarily and professedly designed for the reformation of abuses in India; and, as it was necessary for this purpose to establish a new and extensive source of authority and influence at home, very plausible, and to persons interested, doubtless, very convincing, reasons might be adduced to prove it more safe and constitutional to entrust this power to parliamentary commissioners than to the crown, whose influence it had been so lately the grand and favourite object to diminish. Nor was it possible that the parliamentary rejection of this bill could have been attended with such signal effects, had not the popularity of the minister with whom it originated been already completely and for ever annihilated by means of

that fatal and accursed coalition, which impressed on the public mind an unalterable belief, that the spring of action in every minister is more or less directed by sinister views, a thirst for power, emolument, and ambition.

The subsequent line of conduct pursued by Mr. Fox, both in his parliamentary and political character, bespeak in him a high sensibility of his error, and of the sacrifice he had made, his acknowledgment of which afforded great satisfaction to his partizans; insomuch that in the year 1793, his friends, at a general meeting, agreed to present him with one hundred thousand pounds, as a testimony of their approbation of his private virtues and of his general public conduct; and Mr. Fox was pleased to signify his readiness to accept of this magnificent gratuity; which doubtlessly evinces a most dignified mark of popular esteem. With regard to the oratorical talents of Mr. Fox, whose declamatory torrent, like the deep and rapid falls of Niagara, overwhelms every unsuspicious bark that is drawn within its vortex, their powers are well known to every student in politics. As a scholar, and in depth of erudition, no one comes before him. His speeches are extremely classical, and his knowledge fully competent to every subject. He expresses himself with amazing volubility, and deals much in detail. He attacks with great boldness, and excels most in shewing a question in some new point of view, or in giving the most wonderful effect and colouring to parts that have, in other hands, made little or no impression on the house. No one conducts himself with more politeness and liberality in debate. He never speaks of professional men but in the warmest strains of panegyric, nor suffers any thing of a personal nature, or like abuse, to escape him, except against the minister, whose conduct he professedly attacks on all occasions, in the most general terms of censure and reprobation. It is not unfrequently urged, by way of degradation to Mr. Fox, and professedly to abridge the splendour of his political character and abilities, that



that he very early indulged, without reserve, in all the fashionable levities and dissipations incident to his age and station. It ought, however, at the same time to be remarked, that he stopped short of those vices which essentially debase and contaminate the moral character, and which are equally incompatible with present esteem or future hope. For though dissipation borders upon the region of moral depravity, and too often terminates in it, there is a real and very important difference between them. A youth of high spirit and elevated rank, endowed with lively sensibilities, and possessing all the advantages which nature and fortune can bestow, may be considered, on his first entrance into life, as placed in a scene of absolute enchantment. Pleasure presents herself in a thousand forms, and, in the ardour and effervescence of

passion, no other object is perceived for which existence is desirable. At length, the fascination dissolves, and it will be indeed fortunate if he is then able to transfer his regards to those superior pursuits which are calculated to give full scope to the intellectual and rational faculties. In the higher walks of life, when the concomitant temptations are surmounted, and advantages improved, are the highest and most accomplished characters formed; and in justice to Mr. Fox it must be acknowledged, that he has greatly redeemed the errors of his youth, by the attainments of his maturer years, and by devoting his unrivalled talents almost exclusively to the noble and transcendent intention of advancing, by the most unwearied and unremitting exertions, the peace, welfare, and prosperity, of his country.

#### HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM PITT.

With a fine PORTRAIT.

MR. Pitt is the second son of the late Earl of Chatham, who raised this country to the highest pinnacle of glory. He received his education at the university of Cambridge, and was afterwards entered a student of Lincoln's Inn, and admitted to the bar. Formed, however, to be a Roscius on the great stage of politics, he was chosen one of the members in parliament in the year 1780, for the borough of Appleby, which place he continued to represent till the year 1784, when he was returned for the university of Cambridge, for which he at present sits in the house.

On the 10th of July 1782, he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, in the room of Lord John Cavendish, which situation he quitted on the resignation of the Marquis of Landsdown, then Earl of Shelburne, first lord of treasury, who was succeeded on the 5th of April 1783, by the Duke of Portland; his grace, however, only continued in power till the 26th of December following, when Mr. Pitt came again into ad-

ministration, and was placed at the head of his majesty's councils.

The elevation of Mr. Pitt to the highest official situation of the country was no less rapid than singular; and his sudden removal from the court of king's bench, where his legal powers had scarcely begun to discover themselves, to the place of first minister of the British empire, was perhaps a transition perfectly unknown in the annals of history.

In reviewing the most celebrated speakers, we find many of them distinguished by some particular and appropriate excellence; but Mr. Pitt presently shewed himself competent to every subject, and equal to every discussion. He soon proved, that he could easily descend to *minutiae*, or rise to magnitude, and that, whatever the question might be, he could tower far above his competitors. By the most superlative genius he seemed to have acquired a knowledge so great and universal, that whether the matter in debate related to Europe, Asia, Africa, or America, he appeared  
equally

equally well informed, and able to argue upon it, no less to his own credit than to the information and attainment of the house.

Mr. Pitt had not been long in power before he had a very signal opportunity of evincing his disinterestedness, by giving up the clerkship of the pells, a circumstance that tended to raise him very high in the estimation of the public, and to form a no inconsiderable theme of praise in both houses of parliament. Lord Thurlow, in particular, in a strain of panegyric, took an opportunity of complimenting the minister on the occasion. He highly applauded him for giving up the clerkship of the pells in the manner he had done; he said, "he had been shabby enough to advise him to take it, as it had so fairly fallen into his hands, and he believed he should have been shabby enough to have done so himself, as other great and exalted characters had so recently set him the example; and he was so shabby as to think, that there was no occasion for him to soar above his noble predecessors in office, and to aspire at higher acts of disinterestedness and spirit; but Mr. Pitt, with notions of purity, not only very uncommon in the present degenerate days, but scarcely to be paralleled in the purest times of Greece and Rome, had nobly preferred the public to the consideration of his own particular interest."

The history of Mr. Pitt is not more extraordinary for the uncommon éclat with which he made his public *entrée* into public life, than for the encomiums passed on him by the first and most independent characters of the age. "His majesty," Mr. Dundas said, "had singled him out as a man of talents the most astonishing, of integrity the most uncorrupt, of a reputation the most extraordinary. He was the favourite of the house of commons, and, in celebrating his name, the people joined in one general anthem of praise." The country gentlemen, in particular, who are of the first weight and consideration, took an early opportunity of expressing their satisfaction. Mr. Rolle not only delivered his own private sentiments, but said, he was empow-

ered and commanded by his constituents to declare to the house, "that they highly concurred with him in his support of the minister, and that they reposed the most implicit confidence in his measures." Mr. Drake pronounced Mr. Pitt a "magnanimous minister," and added, "that from his appointment, the most happy passages of glory and prosperity to this country might naturally be drawn." Mr. Martin, independent in his opinion, and not very apt to praise, thought Mr. Pitt "a noble minister," and declared, "that his conduct had always been consistent, steady, and, upright." And in the lords, the late Duke of Chandos said, "he supported the present premier wholly from principle;" and after passing a warm eulogium on him, parodying what Mr. Pitt's father said of General Wolfe, pronounced the present chancellor of the exchequer "an heaven-born minister."

Mr. Pitt, before he came into administration, had won greatly on the public mind by his exertions for a parliamentary reform. It is remarkable, that, notwithstanding the prodigious and glaring inequality of the national system of representation as now constituted, the idea of a parliamentary reform may be considered in great measure as a novelty in politics. The patriots of former days, sensible of the dangers arising from the rapid and enormous increase of the regal influence, strongly and repeatedly urged the remedial measures of triennial parliaments, of civil and military reductions, of place and pension bills; but it was a species of merit reserved for Mr. Pitt, to strike at the root of the evil, by an effort to extend and equalize that popular representation, on the purity and integrity of which the national prosperity and welfare so essentially depend.

The evils attending this defective and corrupt state of the representation had at no former period of our history been so flagrantly apparent as in the present reign; and it was with grief and indignation that the intelligent and independent part of the public saw the house of commons degenerate into an assembly apparently  
possessing



possessing neither will, nor power, nor wisdom, but what they derived from the fiat of the minister, who also frequently appeared himself the sport of some capricious and invisible agent. "The virtue, spirit, and essence, of an house of commons," says Mr. Burke in his famous political tract, "consists in its being the express image of the feelings of the nation. An addressing house of commons, and a petitioning nation—an house of commons full of confidence when the nation is plunged in despair, who vote thanks when the nation calls upon them for impeachments, who are eager to grant when the general voice demands account, who in all disputes between the people and administration presume against the people, who punish their disorders, but refuse to enquire into the provocations to them:—this is an unnatural, a monstrous, state of things in this constitution. Such an assembly is not to any popular purpose an house of commons." And so struck was the late Earl of Chatham with the obvious and manifold mischiefs arising from the present incongruous system, that he scrupled not to hazard a peremptory prediction, that the rotten boroughs would not survive the present century—and that, if parliament did not reform itself from within, it would be reformed with a vengeance from without." Nevertheless it must be acknowledged there were not wanting many wise and excellent persons, true and firm friends to liberty, whose minds forcibly revolted at the novelty and boldness of the idea of new-modelling the representation of the country. They conceived the actual advantages resulting from the constitution, when rightly administered, under the present form, too great to risque any experiment, however plausible in theory, of such magnitude as to draw after it consequences which no human sagacity could pretend to trace or fathom.

Totally to annihilate the influence of the crown in the house of commons, would give such an ascendancy to the republican part of the constitution, that the prerogative of the monarch would in a short time be

reduced to as low an ebb as the authority which is exercised by a doge of Venice; the executive power would lose its weight and energy, and the state would be torn with the opposite and equal claims of hostile and contending factions.

The Duke of Richmond, however, who had signalised himself as a public and zealous patron of this scheme, expressly says, in his famous letter to Colonel Sharman, chairman of the military convention at Dungannon, "that all plans of a merely speculative nature, not tending to the effectual recovery of their rights, neither could nor ought to influence the people in their favour." His grace, in conformity to these sentiments, declares, "that he did not think himself at liberty to speculate on the subject, for that every man not labouring under natural or moral disability had an inherent right of suffrage paramount to all considerations of civil or political expediency."

And the city of London also, assembled in common-hall, resolved, "That the unequal representation of the people, the corrupt state of parliament, and the perversion thereof from its original institution, had been the principal causes of the unjust war with America, and of every grievance of which the nation complained." Similar resolutions were passed by the county of York, and many other counties and cities; and after so long and bitter an experience of the evils arising from the defective state of the representation, it would indeed have argued not so much a wise and well-weighed caution, as a reproachful excess of political timidity in the nation, to have hesitated in applying the most permanent and efficacious remedy. The motion of Mr. Pitt, however, though eloquently enforced by the mover, and supported by Mr. Fox with a great display of discrimination and judgment, was rejected, notwithstanding its popularity, by a majority of 161 to 141 voices.

Very soon after this motion, Mr. Pitt was constituted chancellor of the exchequer, under the administration of the Earl of Shelburne; which he held only during the short continuance

ance of that nobleman's political reign; when Mr. Fox, on his famous coalition with Lord North, was again placed at the head of affairs, and Mr. Pitt was succeeded by Lord John Cavendish, as chancellor of the exchequer.

Mr. Pitt, now being in opposition, renewed his motion for a more equal representation of the people; and on the 7th of May, 1783, brought forward a specific plan for adding one hundred members to the counties, and abolishing a proportionable number of the burghage-tenure and other small and obnoxious boroughs. This plan, though supported by Mr. Fox as minister of state, was negatived by a great majority; the numbers on the division being 293 to 149. As there must of course ever be a stronger opposition against any specific plan of reform in the first instance, than to a comprehensive and general motion of enquiry only, the latter is evidently the most politic as well as reasonable mode of introducing the question to the notice and discussion of the house; and, had it been adopted by Mr. Pitt on this occasion, it could not have so egregiously failed of success. The motion was opposed by the other secretary, Lord North, who with an happy allusive pleasantry declared, "that, while some with Lear demanded an hundred knights, and others with Goneril were satisfied with fifty, he with Regan exclaimed, No not one!" His lordship, in a graver and more argumentative strain, said, "It was not true that the house of commons had not its full and proper weight in the scale of government;—his political life was a proof that it had. It was parliament that had made him a minister. He came amongst them without connection. It was to them he was indebted for his rise, and they had pulled him down;—he had been the creature of their opinion and of their power;—his political career was consequently a proof of their independence;—the voice of the commons was sufficient to remove whatever was displeasing to the sentiments and wishes of the country; and in such a situation to parade about a reformation was idle, unnecessary, in-

expedient, and dangerous." This reasoning might perhaps have had some degree of weight, could it be lost to the public recollection, that the noble lord was originally advanced to the premiership by the *fact* of the executive power, and was continued in office, during the first and last years of his administration at least, by the influence of the same power, in opposition to the clear, unanimous, and decided, sense of the nation. His lordship's compulsive resignation at the last, proved only that there are limits, beyond which even the complaisance of the representative body does not extend: and the infatuation of the ministers became at length so notorious, that parliament, alarmed at their rashness, and astonished at their folly, happily and critically interposed to save the nation from destruction.

Although Mr. Pitt failed in these two attempts, while out of place, to bring forward a reformation in parliament, he has nevertheless the singular merit of having renewed his endeavours to effect this salutary purpose, after he had held his present exalted situation nearly two years; for, on April 18, 1785, he brought forward a motion in some degree varying from his preceding attempts, in all respects guarded, temperate, and judicious. "He rose (he said) with hopes infinitely more sanguine than he had ventured to entertain at any former period. There never was a moment when the minds of men were more enlightened on this interesting topic, or more prepared for its discussion. He declared his present plan of reform to be perfectly coincident with the spirit of those changes which had taken place in the exercise of the elective franchise from the earliest ages, and not in the least allied to the spirit of innovation. So far back as the reign of Edward I. before which the component orders of the representative body could not be distinctly traced, the franchise of election had been continually fluctuating. As one borough decayed and another flourished, the first was abolished and the second invested with the right. Even the representation of the counties



ties had not been uniform. King James I. in his first proclamation for calling a parliament, directed that the sheriffs should not call upon such decayed and ruined boroughs to send members to that parliament. For this discretion, as vested in the crown, *he was certainly no advocate*; but he wished to establish a permanent rule to operate like the discretion out of which the constitution had sprung—that the principle on which it was founded should be rescued from the accident and caprice in which it was unhappily involved. He wished to bring forward a plan that should be complete, gradual, and permanent; a plan that not only corrected the inequalities of the present system, but which would be competent to preserve the purity it restored, and give to the constitution not only consistency, but if possible, immortality. It was his design that the actual number of the house of commons should be preserved inviolate. His immediate object was to select a certain number of the decayed and rotten boroughs, the the right of representation attached to thirty-six of which should be transferred to the counties, in such proportions as the wisdom of parliament might prescribe; and, that all unnecessary harshness might be avoided, he recommended the appropriation of a fund of one million to be applied to the purchasing of the franchise of such boroughs, on their voluntary application to parliament. When this was effected, he proposed to extend the bill to the purchasing the franchise of other boroughs, besides the original thirty-six; and to transfer the right of returning members to large towns, hitherto unrepresented, upon their petitioning parliament to be indulged with this privilege."

The other most important particulars of Mr. Pitt's plan were the admitting of copyholders to an equality with freeholders, and the extending the franchise in populous towns, where the electors were few, to the inhabitants in general. The result of this plan was to give one hundred members to the popular interest in the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to one hundred thousand

persons, who by the existing provisions of the law are excluded from it. This was a very wise and excellently digested plan, which did great honour to the framer; and the eloquence, ability, and vigour, with which it was supported, left no reasonable ground of doubt as to the sincerity with which it was brought forward.

The most important animadversion in the course of the debate to which this motion gave rise, was made by Mr. Fox, who, justly remarking "that government was not a property, but a trust," strongly objected to the idea of purchasing franchises of boroughs, which from their insignificance were no longer entitled to send members to parliament—"whatever was given for constitutional purposes should be resumed when those purposes were no longer answered." With this and some other less important exceptions, Mr. Fox bestowed upon the plan of the minister a very just and liberal tribute of praise; and it yet remains a doubt, whether, upon the ground of expedience, Mr. Pitt was not fully justified in proposing that regulation, which the more unaccommodating policy of Mr. Fox at that time disdained to approve.

On the other hand, the whole plan was reprobated and ridiculed by Mr. Powys, as the mere knight-errantry of a political Quixote. It was an example, a precedent, an incitement, to the wildest and most paradoxical nostrums that speculative theorists could devise. They got by it what Archimedes wanted—a foundation for their inventions—a *fulcrum* from which they could throw the parliament and constitution of England into the air. He could not contemplate it with any degree of patience. He should not treat it, therefore, with the ceremony of calling for the order of the day; but as its purposes were so hostile to the constitution, so menacing and unqualified, he would meet the question in front by giving it a direct and unequivocal contradiction. It cannot be supposed, owing to the superior force of such arguments as these, that on a division, after a long protracted debate the bill was reject-

ed by a majority of 248 to 174 voices. The most critical moment, perhaps, of Mr. Pitt's administration, next to the present, was during the mental derangement of the king, when Mr. Fox advanced, as a proposition deducible from the principles of the constitution, and the analogy of the law of hereditary succession, that whenever the sovereign was incapable of exercising the functions of his high office, the heir apparent, if of full age and capacity, had as indisputable a claim to the exercise of the executive authority, in the name and on the behalf of the sovereign, during his incapacity, as in the case of his natural demise."

On this assertion of Mr. Pitt rose with much apparent warmth, and declared, "that the speech of Mr. Fox was little short of treason against the constitution. And he pledged himself to prove, that the heir apparent, in the instances in question, had no more right to the exercise of the executive power than any other person; and that it belonged entirely to the two remaining branches of the legislature, to make such a provision for supplying the temporary deficiency as they might think proper." Thus was this famous question at issue between these two great political rivals; in which it was remarkable, that Mr. Fox, the great advocate for the rights of the people, became the defender of prerogative; and Mr. Pitt, who had been loudly accused of deserting the principles of liberty, appeared in the advantageous light of their intrepid and zealous assertor. All those popular arguments and primary axioms of government, on which the friends of freedom so justly delight to dwell, were upon this occasion urged by Mr. Pitt with the greatest success. "When the regular exercise of the powers of government was from any cause suspended, to whom could the right of providing a remedy for the existing defect devolve, but to the people, *from whom all the powers of government originated?* To assert an inherent right in the Prince of Wales to assume the government, was virtually to revive those exploded ideas of the divine

and indefeasible authority of princes, which had so justly sunk into contempt and almost into oblivion. Kings and princes derive their power from the people, and to the people alone, through the organ of their representatives, did it appertain to decide in cases for which the constitution had made no specific or positive provision."

A similar declaration was the next day made by Lord Camden in the house of peers, and the doctrine of Mr. Fox was reprobated by his lordship with great severity. It was on the other hand defended with eloquence and ability by Lord Loughborough, and Lord Stormont, who concluded his speech with recommending an immediate address to the Prince of Wales, entreating him to assume the exercise of the royal authority. The discussion of the abstract question of right being perceived to afford a great and unexpected controversy, the Duke of York, soon after this debate, in the name of the prince, expressed his wishes, "that the question might be waved. No claim of right, his highness said, had been advanced by the Prince of Wales; and he was confident that his brother too well understood the sacred principles which seated the house of Brunswick upon the throne, ever to assume or exercise any power, be his claim what it might, *that was not derived from the will of the people expressed by their representatives.*"

Thus we see, in the political history of these two rival statesmen, how different have been their sentiments at different times even on the same subjects; although the political interests of the nation never vary, and the genuine cause of liberty is ever the same.

Mr. Pitt's plan nevertheless, for the reduction of the national debt, was confessedly a good one; and, had it been left to operate as was originally proposed, its beneficial effects would ere this have been sensibly experienced. But the scourge and calamity of war, sent as it should seem to blast the hopes and commerce of the country, have infinitely outweighed all the prospects of a *sinking fund*.  
Whatever



Whatever may be the event of the bills lately passed, which are expected to operate so powerfully against the *freedom* of Englishmen; yet on the motion of Mr. Wilberforce on the *slave-trade*, to the honour and humanity of Mr. Pitt be it spoken that he conjured the house not to postpone the great and necessary work of abolishing the shackles of slavery. "Reflect," said Mr. Pitt, "on the eighty thousand persons annually torn from their native land! on the connections which are broken! on the friendships, attachments, and relationships, that are burst asunder! There is something in the horror of it that surpasses all the bounds of imagination. How shall we repair the mischiefs we have brought upon that continent? If, knowing the miseries we have caused, we refuse even now to put a stop to them, how greatly aggravated will be the guilt of Britain! Shall we not rather count the days and hours that are suffered to intervene, and to delay the accomplishment of such a work? I trust we shall not think ourselves too liberal, if we give to Africa the common chance of civilization with the rest of the world. If we listen to the voice of reason and duty, and pursue this night the line of conduct which they prescribe, some of us may live to see a reverse of that picture from which we now turn our eyes with shame and regret. We may live to behold the natives of Africa engaged in the calm occupations of industry, in the pursuits of a just and legitimate commerce. We may behold the beams of science and philosophy breaking in upon their land, which, at some happy period in still later times, may blaze with full lustre; and, joining their influence to that of pure religion, may illuminate and invigorate the most distant extremities of that immense continent. Then may we hope, that even Africa, though last of all the quarters of the globe, shall enjoy at length in the evening of her days those blessings which have descended so plentifully upon us in a much earlier period of the world—

— Nos primus equis oriens afflavit anhelis;

Illic sera rubens accendit lumina vesper.

In this view, as an atonement for our long and cruel injustice towards Africa, the measure now before the house most forcibly recommends itself to my mind. The great and happy change to be expected in the state of her inhabitants is, of all the various and important benefits of the abolition, in my estimation incomparably the most extensive and important." Thus nobly can Mr. Pitt at times preserve a place in the esteem of the wife and affection of the good.

In the various important discussions to which Mr. Pitt, as minister, is so frequently led, he never attempts by pompous declamation to give importance to trifles; his language is always suited to the occasion; although he speaks with great fluency and celerity, his words are so well chosen, that they bid defiance to the most critical severity. When an object of superior greatness engages his attention, his mind expands with the subject. It is on these occasions that he convinces the most violent of his opponents, what the powers of eloquence can perform; it is then that his genius ranges far beyond the boundaries in which most others are obliged to confine themselves, and which, if they attempted to pass, they would be unable either to retreat or advance. His perception is so clear, and his understanding so sound, that variety does not distract, nor multiplicity confuse, him.

As a parliamentary debater, Mr. Pitt's character stands pre-eminently distinguished. There is a dignity in his deportment that always commands attention. His delivery is bold and nervous, his language elegant and precise, his manner firm and animated, and his knowledge always comprehensive and complete; while the admirable arrangement of his matter, the correctness of his ideas, and the perfect ease and readiness with which he meets the attacks of opposition, and the excellence of his replies, happily combine in constituting him one of the best speakers, and

most finished orators, in the house of commons.

Besides the office of first lord of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Pitt is lord warden of the Cinque Ports, to which place he

succeeded on the death of the Earl of Guildford, in 1790, a commissioner of the East-India Board, master of the Trinity-house, and high steward of the university of Cambridge.

#### MODE OF PROVIDING FOR THE POOR IN HAMBURGH.

THE rich commercial city of Ham-  
burgh, containing about 110,000 inhabitants, had been gradually, like the other trading towns of Europe, falling into the evils of a numerous, idle, and beggarly, poor. The number which it had to feed was about 7000, besides 2500 in the hospitals. Some private attempts to give them relief and employment had taken place before 1788, but in that year a public institution was formed for those purposes, under the sanction of the magistrates. All the sums before expended in alms and workhouses, together with those which could be collected by annual voluntary subscriptions solicited through the whole town, were formed into one stock. The town was divided into sixty districts, each containing nearly an equal number of poor; to each district three citizens were chosen for three years as overseers, and a committee was appointed of ten directors, five of them senators. The first object being relief, a calculation was made of what each pauper required for a bare subsistence; and it was established as a fundamental principle, to reduce this support lower than what any industrious man or woman could earn by their labour. It was fixed at 1s. 6d. weekly. The next point was to find them work. The spinning of flax-yarn was selected, and the payment was ascertained not by weight but by measure. The poor who wanted work had clean flax delivered to them at a certain low price, and the yarn when spun was bought of them at a rate of 30 per cent. above the usual spinning price. A school was opened for teaching those who required it, and they were maintained till they had learned the art, when they were dismissed with a wheel and a pound of

flax. Thus all those whose former earnings were less than 1s. 6d. a week, and who were able to spin, had work supplied them by the society sufficient for their support, and were declared to be no longer objects of weekly assistance. As to the disabled poor, after the quantity of work which they were able to do had been ascertained, the overseer was directed to pay them weekly as much as it fell short of 1s. 6d. Furnishing employment, therefore, and making it the interest of the poor to work, was the basis of the whole design.

Sickness was the next evil to be obviated. For this purpose, an hospital was provided, and also an establishment for taking care of the sick at their own houses. Physicians, surgeons, and midwives, were appointed to the several quarters, and not only medicine, but diet and money, were distributed as occasion required.

The burthen of a numerous family was also to be alleviated, not only to the lowest poor, but to widows and to industrious couples in a somewhat better way of employment. Weekly allowances were made to the parents in some cases, in others the younger children were boarded out in other families; and schools were provided for all the poor children from six to sixteen years of age, where two thirds of their time were allotted to work, and one third to instruction. It was made a rule, on which the second hinge of the institution is said to turn, "that to no family should any relief be allowed for a child past six years of age, but that this child, being sent to school, should receive, not only the payment of his work, but also an allowance, in the compound ratio of his attendance at school, his behaviour, and his application to work."

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The very destitute condition of the poor at the commencement of this institution rendered it necessary to provide clothes and bedding, as well as to redeem the goods which they had pawned. These articles were secured from being again pawned, by being indelibly marked as the property of the institution. The clothes were made by some of the poor at the schools.

As foreigners flock into Hamburgh from the poor countries round, it was established that not less than three years' residence should entitle

to relief; and a hospitiun was opened for foreign poor, where they might live three days, and then be passed on with a viaticum.

The above comprizes the general plan of management of the poor adopted in Hamburgh, and with such success, that not only has beggary been entirely abolished, but a reduction has been made in the number of families requiring relief, and in the expenditure, at the same time that the mortality among the sick poor has greatly decreased, and in all respects their condition has been amended.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### COURAGE AND FORTITUDE OF THE COUNTESS DE ST. BALMONT.

IT was in the year 1638, says Abbé Arnauld, in his very amusing Memoirs, that I had the honour to become acquainted with that Amazon of our times Madame de St. Balmont, whose life was a prodigy of courage and of virtue, uniting in her person all the valour of a determined soldier, and all the modesty of a truly Christian woman. She was of a very good family of Lorraine, and was born with a disposition worthy of her birth. The beauty of her face corresponded to that of her mind; but her shape by no means agreed with it, being small and rather clumsy. Providence, who had destined her for a life more laborious than that which females in general lead, had formed her more robust and more able to bear bodily fatigue. It had inspired her with so great a contempt for beauty, that when she had the small-pox she was as pleased to be marked with it as other women are afflicted on a similar occasion, and said, that it would enable her to be more like a man. She was married to the Count de St. Balmont, who was not inferior to her either in birth or in merit. They lived together very happily till the troubles that arose in Lorraine obliged them to separate. The count was constantly employed by the duke his sovereign in a manner suitable to his rank and disposition, except when he once gave him the command of a poor feeble fortress, in which he had the

assurance to resist the arms of Louis XIV. for several days together, at the risque of being treated with the extremest severity of military law, which denounces the most infamous and degrading punishment against all those officers who hold out without any prospect of success. M. de St. Balmont went indeed farther, and added insolence to rashness; for, at every shot of cannon that was fired at the fortress, he appeared at the windows, attended by some fiddlers, who played by his side. This madness (for one cannot call it by a more gentle name) had nearly cost him very dear; for when he was taken prisoner it was agitated in the council of war, composed of the officers whom he had treated with this insolence, whether he should not be hung up immediately; but regard was paid to his birth, and perhaps to his courage, however indiscreet. Mad. de St. Balmont remained upon his estates to take care of them. Hitherto she had only exerted her soldier-like disposition in hunting and shooting (which is a kind of war), but very soon an opportunity presented itself of realizing it, and it was this: An officer in our cavalry had taken up his quarters upon one of her husband's estates, and was living there at discretion. Madame de St. Balmont sent him a very civil letter of complaint on his ill behaviour, which he treated with great contempt. Piqued at this, she was resolved

resolved that he should give her satisfaction, and, merely consulting her resentment, she wrote to him a note signed, *Le Chevalier de St. Balmont*. In this note she observed to him, that the ungentlemanlike manner in which he had behaved to his sister-in-law obliged him to resent it, and that he should give him with his sword that satisfaction which his letter had refused. The officer accepted the challenge, and repaired to the place appointed. *Mad. de St. Balmont* met him dressed in man's clothes. They immediately drew their swords, and our heroine had the advantage of him; when, after having disarmed him, she said, with a very gracious smile, You thought, sir, I make no doubt, that you were fighting with *Le Chevalier de St. Balmont*; it is, however, *Mad. de St. Balmont* of that name who returns you your sword, and begs you in future to pay more regard to the requests of the ladies. She then left him, covered with shame and confusion; and, as the story goes, he immediately absented himself, and no one ever saw him afterwards. But, be that as it may, this incident serving merely to inflame the courage of the fair challenger, she did not rest satisfied with merely preserving her estates by repelling force by force, but she afforded protection to many of the gentlemen in her neighbourhood, who made no scruple to take refuge in her village, and to put themselves under her orders when

she took the field, which she always did with success; her designs being executed with a prudence equal to her courage. I have often, says the abbé, been in company with this extraordinary personage at the house of *Madame de Fenquieres*, wife to the celebrated marshal of that name, at Verdun; and it was quite ridiculous to see how embarrassed she appeared in her female dress, and (after she had quitted it in the town) with what ease and spirit she got on horseback, and attended the ladies that were of her party, and whom she had left in her carriage, in their little excursions into the country.

The manner of living, however, of *Madame de St. Balmont*, so far removed from that of her sex, and which in all other females who have attempted it has ever been found united with libertinism of manners, was in her accompanied with nothing that bore the least resemblance to it. When she was at home in time of peace, her whole day was employed in the offices of religion; in prayers, in reading the Bible and books of devotion, in visiting the poor of her parish, whom she was ever assisting with the most active zeal of charity. This manner of living procured her the admiration and esteem of persons of all descriptions in her neighbourhood, and insured her a degree of respect that could not have been greater towards a queen.

#### DRYDEN'S THOUGHTS ON SALVATION.

**I**T has always been my thought, that the heathens, who never did, nor without miracles ever could, hear of Christ, were yet in a possibility of salvation. Neither will it enter into my belief, that, before the coming of our Saviour, the whole world, excepting only the Jewish nation, should be under the inevitable necessity of everlasting punishment for want of that revelation which was confined to so small a spot of ground as that of Palestine. Among the sons of Noah we read of only one who was accursed; and, if a blessing, in the ripeness of time, was reserved for Japhet,

(of whose progeny we are,) it seems unaccountable to me, why so many generations of the same offspring as preceded our Saviour in the flesh should all be involved in one common condemnation, and yet that their posterity should be entitled to the hopes of salvation; as if a bill of exclusion had passed only on the fathers, which debarred not the sons from their succession; or that so many ages had been delivered over to hell, and so many reserved for heaven; and that the devil had the first choice, and God the next.

HISTORY



# HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 309.

**I**N South Carolina the provincials had a most formidable enemy to deal with. A squadron, whose object was the reduction of Charlestown, had been fitted out in December 1775; but, by reason of unfavourable weather, did not reach Cape Fear in North Carolina till the month of May 1776: and here it met with further obstacles till the end of the month. Thus the Americans, always noted for their alertness in raising fortifications, had time to strengthen those of Charlestown in such a manner as rendered it extremely difficult to be attacked. The British squadron consisted of two fifty-gun ships, four of thirty guns, two of twenty, an armed schooner and bomb-ketch; all under the command of Sir Peter Parker. The land forces were commanded by Lord Cornwallis, with Generals Clinton and Vaughan. As they had yet no intelligence of the evacuation of Boston, General Howe dispatched a vessel to Cape Fear with some instructions, but it was too late; and in the beginning of June the squadron anchored off Charlestown-bar. Here they met with some difficulty in crossing, being obliged to take out the guns from the two large ships, which were, notwithstanding, several times in danger of sticking fast. The next obstacle was a strong fort on Sullivan's island, six miles east from Charlestown; which, though not completely finished, was very strong. However, the British generals resolved without hesitation to attack it; but, though an attack was easy from the sea, it was very difficult to obtain a co-operation of the land forces. This was attempted by landing them on Long Island, adjacent to Sullivan's Island, on the east, from which it is separated by a very narrow creek, said not to be above two feet deep at low water. Opposite to this ford the provincials had posted a strong body of troops, with cannon and intrenchments; while General Lee was posted on the main land, with a bridge of boats betwixt that and Sullivan's Island, so that he could at pleasure send

reinforcements to the troops in the fort on Sullivan's Island.

On the part of the British, so many delays occurred, that it was the 28th of June before matters were in readiness for an attack; and by this time the provincials had abundantly provided for their reception. On the morning of that day the bomb-ketch began to throw shells into Fort Sullivan, and about mid-day the two fifty-gun ships and thirty-gun frigates came up and began a severe fire. Three other frigates were ordered to take their station between Charlestown and the fort, in order to enfilade the batteries, and cut off the communication with the main land; but, through the ignorance of the pilots, they all stuck fast; and, though two of them were disentangled, they were found to be totally unfit for service: the third was burnt, that she might not fall into the hands of the enemy.

The attack was therefore confined to the five armed ships and bomb-ketch, between whom and the fort a dreadful fire ensued. The Bristol suffered excessively. The springs on her cable being shot away, she was for some time entirely exposed to the enemy's fire. As the enemy poured in great quantities of red-hot balls, she was twice in flames. The captain (Mr. Morris), after receiving five wounds, was obliged to go below deck in order to have his arm amputated. After undergoing this operation he returned to his place, where he received another wound, but still refused to quit his station; at last he received a red-hot ball in his belly, which instantly put an end to his life. Of all the officers and seamen who stood on the quarter-deck of this vessel, not one escaped without a wound, excepting Sir Peter Parker alone; whose intrepidity and presence of mind on this occasion were very remarkable. The engagement lasted till darkness put an end to it. Little damage was done by the British, as the works of the enemy lay so low that many of the shot flew over; and the fortifications, being composed

composed of palm-trees mixed with earth, were extremely well calculated to resist the impression of cannon. During the height of the attack, the provincial batteries remained for some time silent, so that it was concluded that they had been abandoned; but this was found to proceed only from want of powder; for, as soon as a supply of this necessary article was obtained, the firing was resumed as brisk as before. During the whole of this desperate engagement it was found impossible for the land forces to give the least assistance to the fleet. The enemy's works were found to be much stronger than they had been imagined, and the depth of water effectually prevented them from making any attempt. In this unsuccessful attack the killed and wounded on the part of the British amounted to about two hundred. The *Bristol* and *Experiment* were so much damaged, that it was thought they could not have been got over the bar; however, this was at last accomplished by a very great exertion of naval skill, to the surprise of the provincials, who had expected to make them both prizes. On the American side the loss was judged to have been very considerable, as most of their guns were dismounted, and reinforcements had poured into the fort during the whole time of the action.

This year also, the Americans, having so frequently made trial of their valour by land, became desirous of trying it by sea also, and of forming a navy that might in some measure be able to protect their trade, and do essential hurt to the enemy. In the beginning of March Commodore Hopkins was dispatched with five frigates to the *Bahama* Islands, where he made himself master of the ordnance and military stores; but the gunpowder, which had been the principal object, was removed. On his return he captured several vessels; but was foiled in his attempt on the *Glasgow* frigate, which found means to escape notwithstanding the efforts of his whole squadron.

The time, however, was now come when the fortitude and patience of the Americans were to undergo a severe trial. Hitherto they had been on the whole successful in their operations:

but now they were doomed to experience misfortune, misery, and disgrace; the enemy over-running their country, and their own armies not able to face them in the field. The province of New York, as being the most central colony, and most accessible by sea, was pitched upon for the object of the main attack. The force sent against it consisted of six ships of the line, thirty frigates, besides other armed vessels, and a vast number of transports. The fleet was commanded by Lord Howe, and the land forces by his brother General Howe, who was now at Halifax. The latter, however, a considerable time before his brother arrived, had set sail from Halifax, and lay before New York, but without attempting to commence hostilities until he should be joined by his brother. The Americans had, according to custom, fortified New York and the adjacent islands in an extraordinary manner. However, General Howe was suffered to land his troops on Staten Island, where he was soon joined by a number of the inhabitants. About the middle of July Lord Howe arrived with the grand armament; and, being one of the commissioners appointed to receive the submission of the colonists, he published a circular letter to this purpose to the several governors who had lately been expelled from their provinces, desiring them to make the extent of his commission, and the powers he was invested with by parliament, as public as possible. Here, however, congress saved him trouble, by ordering his letter and declaration to be published in all the newspapers, that every one, as they said, might see the insidiousness of the British ministry, and that they had nothing to trust to besides the exertion of their own valour.

Lord Howe next sent a letter to General Washington; but, as it was directed "To George Washington, Esq." the general refused to accept of it, as not being directed in the stile suitable to his station. To obviate this objection, Adjutant-general Paterfon was sent with another letter, directed "To George Washington, &c. &c. &c." But, though a very polite reception was given to the bearer, General Washington utterly refused the letter;



ter; nor could any explanation of the adjutant induce him to accept of it. The only interesting part of the conversation was that relating to the powers of the commissioners, of which Lord Howe was one. The adjutant told him, that these powers were very extensive; that the commissioners were determined to exert themselves to the utmost, in order to bring about a reconciliation; and that he hoped the general would consider this visit as a step towards it. General Washington replied, that it did not appear that these powers consisted in any thing else than granting pardons; and, as America had committed no offence, she asked no forgiveness, and was only defending her unquestionable rights.

The decision of every thing being now by consent of both parties left to the sword, no time was lost, but hostilities commenced as soon as the British troops could be collected. This, however, was not done before the month of August; when they landed without any opposition on Long Island, opposite to the shore of Staten Island. General Putnam, with a large body of troops, lay encamped and strongly fortified on a peninsula on the opposite shore, with a range of hills between the two armies, the principal pass of which was near a place called Flatbush. Here the centre of the British army, consisting of Hessians, took post: the left wing, under General Grant, lying near the shore; and the right, consisting of the greater part of the British forces, lay under Lord Percy, Cornwallis, and General Clinton. Putnam had ordered the passes to be secured by large detachments, which was executed as to those at hand; but one of the utmost importance, that lay at a distance, was entirely neglected. This gave an opportunity to a large body of troops under Lord Percy and Clinton to pass the mountains and attack the Americans in the rear, while they were engaged with the Hessians in front. Through this piece of negligence their defeat became inevitable. Those who were engaged with the Hessians first perceived their mistake, and began a retreat towards their camp; but the passage was intercepted by the British troops, who drove them back

into the woods. Here they were met by the Hessians; and thus were they for many hours slaughtered between the two parties, no way of escape remaining but by breaking through the British troops, and thus regaining their camp. In this attempt many perished; and the right wing, engaged with General Grant, shared the same fate. The victory was complete; and the Americans lost on this fatal day (Aug. 27) between three and four thousand men, of whom two thousand were killed in the battle or pursuit. Among these a regiment, consisting of young gentlemen of fortune and family in Maryland, was almost entirely cut in pieces, and of the survivors not one escaped without a wound.

The ardour of the British troops was now so great, that they could scarcely be restrained from attacking the lines of the provincials; but for this there was now no occasion, as it was certain they could not be defended. Of the British only sixty-one were killed in this engagement, and two hundred and fifty-seven wounded. Eleven hundred of the enemy, among whom were three generals, were taken prisoners.

As none of the American commanders thought it proper to risk another attack, it was resolved to abandon their camp as soon as possible. Accordingly, on the night of the 29th of August, the whole of the continental troops were ferried over with the utmost secrecy and silence; so that in the morning the British had nothing to do but take possession of the camp and artillery which they had abandoned.

This victory, though complete, was very far from being so decisive as the conquerors imagined. Lord Howe, supposing that it would be sufficient to intimidate the congress into some terms, sent General Sullivan, who had been taken prisoner in the late action, to congress, with a message, importing, that, though he could not consistently treat with them as a legal assembly, yet he would be very glad to confer with any of the members in their private capacity; setting forth at the same time the nature and extent of his powers as commissioner. But the congress were not as yet sufficiently humbled to derogate in the least from the dignity

of character they had assumed. They replied, that the congress of the free and independent states of America could not consistently send any of its members in another capacity than that which they had publicly assumed; but, as they were extremely desirous of restoring peace to their country upon equitable conditions, they would appoint a committee of their body to wait upon him, and learn what proposals he had to make.

This produced a new conference. The committee appointed by congress was composed of Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Rutledge. They were very politely received by his lordship; but the conference proved as fruitless as before independency had been declared, and the final answer of the deputies was, that they were extremely willing to enter into any treaty with Great Britain that might conduce to the good of both nations, but that they would not treat in any other character than that of independent states. This positive declaration instantly put an end to all hopes of reconciliation; and it was resolved to prosecute the war with the utmost vigour. Lord Howe, after publishing a manifesto, in which he declared the refusal of congress, and that he himself was willing to confer with all well-disposed persons about the means of restoring public tranquillity, set about the most proper methods for reducing the city of New York. Here the provincial troops were posted, and from a great number of batteries kept continually annoying the British shipping. The East River lay between them, of about twelve hundred yards in breadth, which the British troops were extremely desirous of passing. At last the ships having, after an incessant cannonade of several days, silenced the most troublesome batteries, a body of troops was sent up the river to a bay, about three miles distant, where the fortifications were less strong than in other places. Here having driven off the provincials by the cannon of the fleet, they marched directly towards the city; but the enemy, finding that they should now be attacked on all sides, abandoned the city, and retired to the north of the island, where their principal force was collected. In

their passage thither they skirmished with the British, but carefully avoided a general engagement; and it was observed that they did not behave with that ardour and impetuous valour which had hitherto marked their character.

The British and provincial armies were not now above two miles distant from each other. The former lay encamped from shore to shore for an extent of two miles, being the breadth of the island, which, though fifteen miles long, exceeds not two in any part in breadth. The provincials, who lay directly opposite, had strengthened their camp with many fortifications; at the same time, being masters of all the passes and defiles betwixt the two camps, they were enabled to defend themselves against an army much more numerous than their own; and they had also strongly fortified a pass called King's Bridge, whence they could secure a passage to the continent in case of any misfortune. Here General Washington, in order to inure the provincials to actual service, and at the same time to annoy the enemy as much as possible, employed his troops in continual skirmishes; by which it was observed, that they soon recovered their spirits, and behaved with their usual boldness.

As the situation of the two armies was now highly inconvenient for the British generals, it was resolved to make such movements as might oblige General Washington to relinquish his strong situation. The possession of New York had been less beneficial than was expected. It had been concerted among the provincials, that the city should be burnt at the time of evacuation; but, as they were forced to depart with precipitation, they were prevented from putting the scheme in execution. In a few days, however, it was attempted by some who had been left behind for that purpose. Taking advantage of a high wind and dry weather, the town was set on fire in several places at once, by means of combustibles properly placed for that purpose; and, notwithstanding the most active exertions of the soldiery and sailors, one-fourth part of the city was consumed.

On this occasion the British were irritated to the highest degree; and many



ny persons, said to be incendiaries, were without mercy thrown into the flames. It was determined to force the provincial army to a greater distance, that they might have it less in their power, by any emissaries, to engage others in a similar attempt. For this purpose, General Howe having left Lord Percy with sufficient force to garrison New York, he embarked his army in flat-bottomed boats, by which they were conveyed through the dangerous passage called Hell-gate, and landed near the town of West Chester, lying on the continent towards Connecticut. Here having received a supply of men and provisions, they moved to New Rochelle, situated on the sound which separates Long Island from the continent. After this, receiving still fresh reinforcements, they made such movements as threatened to distress the provincials very much, by cutting off their convoys of provisions from Connecticut, and thus force them to an engagement. This, however, General Washington determined at all events to avoid. He therefore extended his forces into a long line opposite to the way in which the enemy marched, keeping the Bruna, a river of considerable magnitude, between the two armies, with the North River on his rear. Here again the provincials continued for some time to annoy and skirmish with the royal army, until at last, by some other manoeuvres, the British general found means to attack them advantageously at a place called the White Plains, and drove them from some of their posts. The victory on this occasion was much less complete than the former; however it obliged the provincials once more to quit their ground, and to retreat farther up the country. General Howe pursued for some time; but at last, finding all his endeavours vain to bring the Americans to a pitched battle, he determined to give over such an useless chase, and employ himself in reducing the forts which the provincials still retained in the neighbourhood of New York. In this he met with the most complete success. The Americans, on the approach of the king's forces, retreated from King's Bridge into Fort Washington; and this, as well as Fort Lee, which lay in the neighbourhood,

was quickly reduced, though the garrison made their escape. Thus the Jerseys were laid entirely open to the incursions of the British troops; and so fully were these provinces taken possession of by the royal army, that its winter-quarters extended from New Brunswick to the river Delaware. Had any number of boats been at hand, it is probable that Philadelphia would now have fallen into their hands. All these, however, had been carefully removed by the Americans. In lieu of this enterprise, Sir Henry Clinton undertook an expedition to Rhode Island, and became master of it without losing a man. His expedition was also attended with this further advantage, that the American fleet under Commodore Hopkins was obliged to sail as far as possible up the river Providence, and thus remained entirely useless.

The same ill success continued to attend the Americans in other parts. After their expulsion from Canada, they had crossed the lake Champlain, and taken up their quarters at Crown Point, as we have already mentioned. Here they remained for some time in safety, as the British had no vessels on the lake, and consequently General Burgoyne could not pursue them. To remedy this deficiency, there was no possible method, but either to construct vessels on the spot, or take to pieces some vessels already constructed, and drag them up the river into the lake. This, however, was effected in no longer a space than three months; and the British general, after incredible toil and difficulty, saw himself in possession of a great number of vessels, by which means he was enabled to pursue his enemies, and invade them in his turn. The labour undergone at this time by the sea and land forces must indeed have been prodigious; since there were conveyed over land, and dragged up the rapids of St. Laurence, no fewer than thirty large long boats, four hundred batteaux, besides a vast number of flat-bottomed boats, and a gondola of thirty tons. The intent of the expedition was to push forward before winter to Albany, where the army would take up its winter-quarters, and next spring effect a junction with that under General Howe, when it was not doubted

doubted that the united force and skill of these two commanders would speedily put a termination to the war.

By reason of the difficulties with which the equipment of this fleet had been attended, it was the beginning of October before the expedition could be undertaken. It was now, however, by every judge allowed to be completely able to answer the purpose for which it was intended. It consisted of one large vessel with three masts, carrying eighteen twelve-pounders; two schooners, the one carrying fourteen, the other twelve, six-pounders; a large flat-bottomed radeau with six twenty-four and six twelve pounders; and a gondola with eight nine-pounders. Besides these were twenty vessels of a smaller size, called gun-boats, carrying each a piece of brass ordnance from nine to twenty-four pounders, or howitzers. Several long-boats were fitted out in the same manner; and, besides all these, there was a vast number of boats and tenders of various sizes, to be used as transports for the troops and baggage. It was manned by a number of select seamen, and the guns were to be served by a detachment from the corps of artillery; the officers and soldiers appointed for this expedition were also chosen out of the whole army.

To oppose this formidable armament the Americans had only a very inconsiderable force, commanded by General Arnold; who, after engaging part of the British fleet for a whole day, took advantage of the darkness of the night to set sail without being perceived, and next morning was out of sight: but he was so hotly pursued by the British, that on the second day after he was overtaken, and forced to a second engagement. In this he behaved with great gallantry; but, his force being very inferior to that of the enemy, he was obliged to run his ships ashore and set them on fire. A few only escaped to Lake George; and, the garrison of Crown Point having destroyed or carried off every thing of value, retired to Ticonderago. Thither General Carleton intended to have pursued them; but the difficulties he had to encounter appeared so many and so great, that it was thought proper to march back into

Canada, and desist from any further operations till next spring.

Thus the affairs of the Americans seemed every where going to wreck: even those who had been most sanguine in their cause began to waver. The time, also, for which the soldiers had enlisted themselves, was now expired; and the bad success of the preceding campaign had been so very discouraging, that no person was willing to engage himself during the continuance of a war, of which the event seemed to be so doubtful. In consequence of this, therefore, General Washington found his army daily decreasing in strength; so that from thirty thousand, of whom it consisted when General Howe landed on Staten Island, scarcely a tenth part could now be mustered. To assist the chief commander as much as possible, General Lee had collected a body of forces in the north; but on his way southward, having imprudently taken up his lodging at some distance from his troops, information was given to Colonel Harcourt, who happened at that time to be in the neighbourhood, and Lee was made prisoner. The loss of this general was much regretted, the more especially as he was of superior quality to any prisoner in the possession of the colonists, and could not therefore be exchanged. Six field-officers were offered in exchange for him and refused; and the congress was highly irritated at its being reported that he was to be treated as a deserter, having been a half-pay officer in the British service at the commencement of the war. In consequence of this they issued a proclamation, threatening to retaliate on the prisoners in their possession whatever punishment should be inflicted on any of those taken by the British, and especially that their conduct should be regulated by the treatment of General Lee.

In the mean time they proceeded with the most indefatigable diligence to recruit their army, and bound their soldiers to serve for a term of three years, or during the continuance of the war. The army designed for the ensuing campaign was to consist of eighty-eight battalions; of which each province was to contribute its quota; and twenty dollars were offered as a bounty



to each soldier, besides an allotment of lands at the end of the war. In this allotment it was stipulated, that each soldier should have one hundred acres; an ensign one hundred and fifty; a lieutenant two hundred; a captain three hundred; a major four hundred; a lieutenant-colonel four hundred and fifty; and a colonel five hundred. No lands were promised to those who enlisted only for three years. All officers or soldiers disabled through wounds received in the service were to enjoy half-pay during life. To defray the expence, congress borrowed five millions of dollars at five per cent. for payment of which the United States became surety. At the same time, in order to animate the people to vigorous exertions, a declaration was published, in which they set forth the necessity there was for taking proper methods to insure success in their cause: they endeavoured to palliate as much as possible the misfortunes which had already happened; and represented the true cause of the present distress to be the short term of enlistment.

This declaration, together with the imminent danger of Philadelphia, determined the Americans to exert themselves to the utmost in order to reinforce General Washington's army. They soon received farther encouragement, however, by an exploit of that general against the Hessians. As the royal army extended in different cantonments for a great way, General Washington, perceiving the imminent danger to which Philadelphia was exposed, resolved to make some attempt on those divisions of the enemy which lay nearest that city. These happened to be the Hessians, who lay in three divisions, the last only twenty miles distant from Philadelphia. On the 25<sup>th</sup> of December, having collected as considerable a force as he could, he set out with an intent to surprise that body of the enemy who lay at Trenton. His army was divided into three bodies; one of which he ordered to cross the Delaware at Trenton Ferry, a little below the town; the second at a good distance below, at a place called Bordentown, where the second division of Hessians was placed; while he himself with the third, directing his course to

a ferry some miles above Trenton, intended to have passed it at midnight, and attack the Hessians at break of day. But, by reason of various impediments, it was eight of the morning before he could reach the place of his destination. The enemy, however, did not perceive his approach till they were suddenly attacked. Colonel Ralle, who commanded them, did all that could be expected from a brave and experienced officer; but every thing was in such confusion, that no efforts of valour or skill could now retrieve matters. The colonel himself was mortally wounded, his troops were entirely broken, their artillery seized, and about one thousand taken prisoners.

This action, though seemingly of no very decisive nature, was sufficient at that time to turn the fortune of war in favour of America. It tended greatly to lessen the fear which the provincials had of the Hessians, at the same time that it equally abated the confidence which the British had till now put in them. Reinforcements came in to General Washington's army from all quarters; so that he was soon in a condition to leave Philadelphia, and take up his quarters at Trenton. Emboldened by his success, he determined to make an attempt on a division of the British forces stationed at Maidenhead, a town situated half way between Trenton and Princetown. This consisted of three regiments under the command of Colonel Mawhood, an officer of great merit. The troops were surprised on their march; but, though they were separately surrounded and attacked by a force so vastly superior, they charged the enemy so resolutely with their bayonets, that they effected a retreat. These attempts of the Americans, however, with the hostile disposition of the people, shewed the impossibility of maintaining posts so far advanced in the enemy's country; so that it was resolved to retreat towards Brunswick, in order to prevent it, with the troops and magazines it contained, from falling into the hands of the provincials. General Washington lost no opportunity of recovering what had been lost; and, by dividing his army into small parties, which could be re-united on a few hours warning, he in a manner entirely

ly covered the country with it, and repossessed himself of all the important places.

Thus ended the campaign of 1776, with scarcely any real advantage other than the acquisition of the city of New York, and of a few fortresses in its

neighbourhood; where the troops were constrained to act with as much circumspection as if they had been besieged by a victorious army, instead of being themselves the conquerors.

[To be continued.]

#### ADVANTAGES OF PATIENCE.

**P**ATIENCE is that calm and unruffled temper with which a good man bears the evils of life, from a conviction that they are at least permitted, if not sent, by the best of Beings, who makes all things work together for good to those who love and fear him.

The evils by which life is embittered may be reduced to these four: 1. Natural evils, or those to which we are by nature subject as men, and as perishable animals. The greatest of these are, the death of those whom we love, and of ourselves. 2. Those from which we might be exempted by a virtuous and prudent conduct, but which are the inseparable consequences of imprudence or vice, which we shall call punishments; as infamy proceeding from fraud, poverty from prodigality, debility and disease from intemperance. 3. Those by which the fortitude of the good are exercised; such as the persecutions raised against them by the wicked. 4. The opposition against which we must perpetually struggle, arising from the diversity of sentiments, manners, and characters, of the persons among whom we live.

Under all these evils patience is not only necessary but useful: it is necessary, because the laws of nature have made it a duty, and to murmur against natural events is to affront Providence; it is useful, because it renders our sufferings lighter, shorter, and less dangerous.

Is your reputation sullied by invidious calumnies? rejoice that your character cannot suffer but by false imputations. You are arraigned in a court of judicature, and are unjustly condemned; passion has influenced both your prosecutor and your judge, and you cannot forbear repining that you suffer although innocent. But would it have been better that you should

have suffered being guilty? Would the greatest misfortune that can befall a virtuous man be to you a consolation? The opulence of a villain, the elevated station to which he is raised, and the honours that are paid to him, excite your jealousy, and fill your bosom with repinings and regret. What! say you, are riches, dignity, and power, reserved for such wretches as this? Cease these groundless murmurs. If the possessions you regret were real benefits, they would be taken from the wicked and transferred to you. What would you say of a successful hero, who, having delivered his country, should complain that his services were ill requited, because a few sugar-plums were distributed to some children in his presence, of which they had not offered him a share? Ridiculous as this would appear, your complaints are no better founded. Has Providence no reward to confer on you but perishable riches and empty precarious honour?

It is fancy, not the reason of things, that makes life so uneasy to us. It is not the place nor the condition, but the mind alone, that can make any body happy or miserable.

He that values himself upon conscience, not opinion, never heeds reproaches. When we are evil spoken of, if we have not deserved it, we are never the worse; if we have, we should mend.

Tiberius the Roman emperor, at the beginning of his reign, acted in most things like a truly generous, good-natured, and clement, prince. All slanderous reports, libels, and lampoons, upon him and his administration, he bore with extraordinary patience; saying, "That in a free state the thoughts and tongues of every man ought to be free:" and, when the senate would have proceeded against some



Some who had published libels against him, he would not consent to it; saying, "We have not time enough to attend to such trifles: if you once open a door to such informations, you will be able to do nothing else; for under that pretence every man will revenge himself upon his enemies by accusing them to you." Being informed that one had spoken detractingly of him, "If he speaks ill of me," says he, "I will give him as good an account of my words and actions as I can; and, if that is not sufficient, I will satisfy myself with having as bad an opinion of him as he has of me." Thus far even Tiberius may be an example to others.

Men will have the same veneration for a person that suffers adversity without dejection, as for demolished temples, the very ruins whereof are revered and adored.

A virtuous and well-disposed person is like to good metal; the more he is fired the more he is refined; the more he is opposed the more he is approved; wrongs may well try him and touch him, but cannot imprint in him any false stamp.

The man therefore who possesses this virtue (patience), in this ample sense of it, stands upon an eminence, and sees human things below him: the tempest indeed may reach him; but he stands secure and collected against it upon the basis of conscious virtue, which the severest storms can seldom shake, and never overthrow.

Patience, however, is by no means incompatible with sensibility, which, with all its inconveniences, is to be cherished by those who understand and wish to maintain the dignity of their nature. To feel for others, disposes us to exercise the amiable virtue of charity, which our religion indispensably requires. It constitutes that enlarged benevolence which philosophy inculcates, and which is indeed comprehended in Christian charity. It is the privilege and the ornament of man; and the pain which it causes is abundantly recompensed by that sweet sensation which ever accompanies the exercise of beneficence.

To feel our own misery with full force is not to be deprecated. Afflic-

tion softens and improves the heart. Tears, to speak in the stile of figure, fertilize the soil in which the virtues grow. And, it is the remark of one who understood human nature, that the faculties of the mind, as well as the feelings of the heart, are meliorated by adversity.

But, in order to promote these ends, our sufferings must not be permitted to overwhelm us. We must oppose them with the arms of reason and religion; and, to express the idea in the language of the philosopher, as well as the poet, of Nature, every one, while he is compelled to feel his misfortunes like a man, should resolve also to bear them like a man.

Resign'd in ev'ry state,  
With patience bear, with prudence push,  
your fate;  
By suffering well our fortune we subdue,  
Fly when the frowns, and when the calls  
pursue.

The following are pleasing examples of the exercise of this virtue:—Vespasian, the Roman emperor, never sought to revenge the affronts which he had suffered in the reign of Nero, but generously forgave all who had injured or reviled him. Being in that prince's reign forbid the court, and not knowing what to do, he had recourse to Phæbus, the emperor's freedman, asking him, whither he should go? Phæbus returned him no other answer, but that he might go hang himself, and thrust him out of his room. The freedman coming to beg his pardon, after he was made emperor, Vespasian was provoked no farther, than to bid him be gone in the same terms. One Mucianus, having given the emperor just cause to be offended, he complained of him to a friend, but ended his complaints with these remarkable words; "Yet I myself am but a man, and consequently not free from blame."

Titus, the son of Vespasian, followed his father's example in this respect, not suffering any person to be prosecuted for speaking disrespectfully of him. "If they blacken my character undeservedly," says he, "they ought rather to be pitied than punished; if deservedly, it would be a crying piece of injustice to punish them for speaking truth."

Of

Of all the philosophers which the sect of the Stoics ever produced, Epictetus is by far the most renowned. He is supposed to have been a native of Hierapolis in Phrygia, was for some time a slave, and belonged to Epaphroditus, one of Nero's life-guard. He reduced all his philosophy to two points only, viz. "To suffer evils with patience, and enjoy pleasures with moderation." Of the former he gave a memorable example. As his master was one day squeezing his leg, in order to torment him, Epictetus said to him very calmly, "You will break my leg;" which happening accordingly, "Did not I tell you," said he, smiling, "that you would break my leg?"

One of the most distinguishing qualities of Socrates, was a tranquillity of soul, that no accident, no loss, no injury, no ill-treatment, could ever alter. Some have believed that he was by nature hasty and passionate, and that the moderation to which he had attained, was the effect of his reflections and endeavours to subdue and correct himself; which would still add to his merit. Seneca tells us, that he had desired his friends to apprise him whenever they saw him ready to fall into a passion, and had given them that privilege over him which he took himself with them. Indeed, the best time to call in aid against rage and anger, that have so violent and sudden a power over us, is when we are yet ourselves, and in cool blood. At the first signal, the least animadversion, he either softened his tone, or was silent. Finding himself in great emotion against a slave, "I would beat you," says he, "if I were not angry." Having received a box on the ear, he contented himself by only saying with a smile, "It is a misfortune not to know when to put on a helmet." Socrates, meeting a gentleman of rank in the street, saluted him, but the gentleman took no notice of it. His friends in company, observing what passed, told the philosopher, "that they were so exasperated at the man's incivility, they had a good mind to resent it." But he very calmly made answer, "If you meet any person on the road in a worse habit of body than yourself,

would you think that you had reason to be enraged at him on that account; if not, pray then, what greater reason can you have for being incensed at a man of a worse habit of mind than any of yourselves?" But, without going out of his house, he found enough to exercise his patience in all its extent. Xantippe, his wife, put it to the severest proofs, by her captious, passionate, violent, disposition. Never was woman of so furious and fantastical a spirit, and so bad a temper. There was no kind of abuse or injurious treatment which he had not to experience from her. She was once so transported with rage against him, that she tore off his cloak in the open street. Whereupon his friends told him, that such treatment was insufferable, and that he ought to give her a severe drubbing for it. "Yes, a fine piece of sport indeed," says he; "while she and I were buffeting one another, you in your turns, I suppose, would animate us on to the combat; while one cried out, Well done Socrates, another would say, Well hit, Xantippe." At another time, having vented all the reproaches her fury could suggest, he went out and sat before the door. His calm and unconcerned behaviour did but irritate her so much the more, and, in the excess of her rage, she ran up stairs and emptied the — pot upon his head; at which he only laughed, and said, "That so much thunder must needs produce a shower." Alcibiades, his friend, talking with him one day about his wife, told him, he wondered how he could bear such an everlasting scold in the same house with him? He replied, "I have so accustomed myself to expect it, that it now offends me no more than the noise of the carriages in the streets." The same disposition of mind was visible in other respects, and continued with him to his last moments. When he was told that the Athenians had condemned him to die, he replied, without the least emotion, "And Nature them." Apollodorus, one of his friends and disciples, having expressed his grief for his dying innocent, "What," replied he with a smile, "would you have had me die guilty?"



## SELECT POETRY.

## WINTER IN LONDON.

WITH matted locks all snow-be-furr'd,  
Shaking hail-stones from his beard,  
Stern winter greets Augusta's town;  
His mantle o'er her Thames he spreads,  
While frowning thro' her streets he treads,  
Like a rude unmanner'd clown.

Nor man nor beast the tyrant spares,  
His rigour ev'ry creature shares,  
Low-bending age with steps untrue;  
Whilst frizzl'd fops, who imitate  
Hoary winter's powder'd pate,  
All trembling face his nose of blue.

Ev'ry building owns his sway,  
Sculptur'd form and painting gay;  
The useful steed, by winter's smart,  
In vain attempts to walk upright,  
Loud groaning now, a dismal sight  
He falls beneath the pond'rous cart.

Driver! spare the generous beast,  
Or shoe him for the task, at least,  
Thine interest must with this agree;  
Doom'd for thy slave, ah, pity him!  
Nor urge the lash for passion's whim,  
Since he can feel as well as thee.

Go, ruthless winter, get thee hence,  
Too many ills thou wouldst dispense,  
Aged want, who hourly moans;  
Days depriv'd of half their light,  
Foul lamps, that scarcely burn by night,  
Slippery streets, and broken bones.

In fetters bound, see commerce pale  
Points to the frozen useless sail  
She spread beneath a milder sky;  
Whilst the sad fisher leaves his boat,  
Unable now to be afloat,  
And begs of every passer by.

While faucy winter treads our streets,  
Insulting every one he meets,  
Be it for us to curb his power;  
Society, that knows no guile,  
Where love and Chloe ever smile,  
Should charm away the frigid hour.

Or else, the gay theatre choose,  
Where public spirit leads the muse  
To mend us by her magic art;  
Where Shakespear's beauties strike the  
ear,  
Awake the smile, or start the tear,  
That shews the kind and feeling heart.

Or, if the senate please thee more,  
Strait seek the Ciceronic door,

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Where elocution sweetly flows;  
Where, ardent for their country's weal,  
Our patriots lead the soul to feel,  
And sadly sigh for Britain's woes.

Ere winter yields to Aries' horn,  
And brighter sunbeams dress the morn,  
May peace anticipate the charms of  
spring!  
So shall the British land rejoice,  
And grateful raise the public voice,  
To "Rule Britannia," and "God  
save the King!"

## EXPLANATION OF LOVE.

BY A LADY.

IN the different sexes love claims no  
relation;  
Though how to explain it, in truth, I  
scarce know:  
In the gentlemen, folly, self-love, dissipa-  
tion,  
As either prevails, prompts the non-  
sense to flow.

You have read in romance, how poor girls  
have been cheated  
By lovers and heroes in author's brains  
hatch'd;  
By florid descriptions, and vanity heated,  
You think those exploits by your own  
shall be match'd.

Some nymph, whom your eye from the  
throng has selected,  
You fancy would soften the cares of  
your life,  
Make a good upper servant, of fraud ne'er  
suspected,  
Obedient and humble when once com-  
menc'd wife.

Then you summon your forces, and open  
the batt'ry;  
Soft looks, kind attentions, at first speak  
the flame;  
From these you proceed to complaints,  
sighs, and flatt'ry,  
With fifty fine things which the Muse  
cannot name.

By vanity dup'd, the fond nymph, all  
believing,  
Thinks your peace, nay your life, must  
depend on her eye;—  
Can those looks, sighs, and tears, be e'er  
feign'd for deceiving?  
What pity a youth so deserving should  
die!

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To be cruel and kill the dear man who  
adores her—

Ah! who to compassion could be so  
estrang'd?

No, she'll soothe all his sorrows next time  
he implores her,

And all his complaints shall to trans-  
ports be chang'd.

Her nature so gentle, her bosom so ten-  
der,

She grieves that an insect should e'er  
suffer pain,

And her life she will dedicate, happy to  
render

This faithful, affectionate, love-strick-  
en, swain.

So they wed;—she expecting that times  
will ne'er alter;

He, thinking to lord it as soon as he  
can,

Begins to command,—her good purposes  
faulters.

And she vows she'll ne'er give up her  
will to a man.

Thus cheating and cheated, they scold,  
storm, and squabble,

Each cursing the day they unhappily  
met,

The grief of their friends, and the jest of  
the rabble,

Now torpid with gloom, and now glow-  
ing with pet.

Such, such is the love by which crowds  
are united,

And such are the humours that part  
them again,

The pure torch of Hymen for them was  
ne'er lighted,

But Plutus and Folly constructed the  
chain.

True love must be founded on virtue and  
reason,

On tempers congenial, and passions  
subdu'd;

Then blessing and bless'd in each varying  
season,

The union thro' life will rapture be  
view'd.

#### TO ELIZA.

With a BASKET OF FLOWERS painted  
on Paper.

WHILE Flora's gay train are all wi-  
ther'd and fled,

And their fragrance regales us no more;

While the beauties of nature are dying or  
dead,

'Till spring shall their lustre restore;

From the garden of fancy this nosegay I  
bring,

And to mimic dame nature I try,

And shew you that winter, as well as the  
spring,

Can a basket of flowers supply.

But ah! what can give to these roses per-  
fume?

What tints like to nature's can please?

They call for that fragrance, that delicate  
bloom,

When zephyrs breathe over their leaves.

But in this does my pencil dame nature's  
excel;

(Her paintings are beauteous, 'tis true,)

She regales for a moment the sight and  
the smell,

But quickly they bid us adieu:

While mine—(let the seasons roll on thro'  
the year,

And vary the garden and grove)

No frost nips the bud, and no stroke can  
they fear,

But the stroke that must sever my love.

The seasons may vary, the flowers may  
fade,

But ah! 'tis not nature nor art

Can cancel the vows to Eliza I made,

Or drive the dear maid from my heart.

#### ON A SNOW-BALL THROWN BY A LADY.

*Me nive candenti petiit mea Julia. Rebar  
Igne carere niven, nix tamen ignis erat.  
Sola potes nostras extinguere Julia, flammam,  
Non nive, non glacie, at tu potes igne part.*

AT me a snow-ball, lovely nymph,  
you aim,

And straight the missile cold becomes a  
flame;

Through my whole frame with violence it  
glows,

And unextinguish'd or by ice or snows;

And, strange to tell, it can be quench'd  
alone,

By a like fire, my Julia, of your own.

#### POVERTY.

AS on a cold and flinty stone,  
With not a spot of earth her own,  
E'en worn and wither'd to the bone,  
Sat wretched Poverty unpitied and un-  
known:

Keen blew the savage blast, and, as she  
prest

Her shiv'ring infant to her milkless  
breast,

With pain o'ercome, with misery op-  
prest,

Kind heav'n receiv'd her, and the sunk  
to rest!

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

DOWNING-STREET, Dec. 19.

**D**ISPATCHES, of which the following are extracts, were received last night from Robert Craufurd, Esq. by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Foreign Department:

*Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfait's Army, Alzey, Dec. 2, 1795.*

I have the honour to inform your lordship, that Marshal Clairfait, with that part of his army, which, during the siege of Mannheim, had been encamped between the Rhine and Neustadt, arrived on the 29th in the neighbourhood of Creutzenach, where it formed a junction with General Wartensleben's corps, and took nearly the same position the latter had occupied for some time past, the right flank being at Bingen, the left on the heights behind Creutzenach and Fursfeld, and the advanced posts pushed on beyond the Nahe.

General Kray, as soon as he was relieved from the post of Neustadt, directed his march towards Wolfstein; from whence, after having received reinforcements from the army, he was to advance by Lautereck and Meissenheim to turn the right flank of the enemy, encamped near Zimmer, whilst the main body of the army should menace his front.

General Kray could not arrive at Lautereck before the 1st instant. In the mean time General Jourdan advanced with the army of the Sambre and Meuse, consisting of about fifty-five thousand men, drove back, on the 30th, the Austrian advanced pickets that were on the other side of the Nahe, and took a position opposite to that of Marshal Clairfait's army, his right flank being covered by one division posted behind Lautereck and Meissenheim on the Glahn, his centre and left extending along the banks of the Nahe to the Rhine. At Bingen, which is situated at the conflux of these two rivers, and on the right bank of the former, there is a stone bridge over the Nahe; but it is equally difficult for either party to undertake any thing in this quarter. From thence to Creutzenach, where there is also a stone bridge, the nature of the ground is much more favourable for the enemy than for the Austrians, as the hills on the left bank (that is, on the enemy's side) are very commanding, and close to the Nahe; whereas, on the right bank there is a

plain of considerable breadth, from which the heights rise in so gradual a slope, as to afford, in general, no position for the Austrian artillery near enough to defend the passages of the river, without being entirely commanded by French batteries on the opposite side. These circumstances exist in a peculiar degree at Creutzenach itself; so much so, that infantry posted on the hill called the Schloßberg, on the left bank, can fire quite into the town, and on to the bridge.

On the morning of the 1st instant, the enemy were seen in very great force, drawn up on the opposite hills. About nine o'clock a large body of infantry, supported by the fire of artillery, very advantageously placed on the heights behind the town, advanced to attack Creutzenach. The Austrians defended it with great firmness, but the disadvantages of the situation made it impossible for them to prevent the enemy's at length getting possession of it, which happened about eleven o'clock. The Austrians, however, having re-formed on this side of the town, advanced again, and attacked the French with so great bravery, that they presently drove them quite over the bridge, and out of the place.

The enemy renewed the attack with a large body of fresh troops, and the Austrians in the town being extremely galled by the commanding fire of the French artillery, and by that of the infantry on the Schloßberg, and being totally unsupported by their own cannon, (which from the nature of the situation could not be made use of,) they found it impossible to maintain the post. They therefore abandoned it a second time, and retired to the heights, bringing away the only piece of artillery that had been employed in the affair.

The enemy contented themselves with occupying the bridge, and did not venture to show themselves on this side of the town.

The loss of the Austrians in this affair amounts to near five hundred killed and wounded.

Fifty of the enemy were taken prisoners, and their loss in killed and wounded must have been considerable.

The having been obliged to abandon the post of Creutzenach is not of any very material consequence, as the army maintains exactly the same position as before, excepting that the part of the line which is opposite that place is thrown a little

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back,

back, in order to occupy the most commanding heights.

At the same time that the above-mentioned affair happened at Creutzenach, General Kray attacked and defeated a corps of the enemy at Lautereck, and entirely cut to pieces and took two whole battalions. The number of prisoners are eight officers and one hundred and fifty men. General Kray occupies Lautereck.

*Dec. 5.* The situation of the Austrian armies on this side the Rhine is at present as follows, viz.

Marshal Clairfait's behind the Nahe, from Bingen to the heights behind Volckenheim, (near Creutzenach,) and Fursfeld. Two or three battalions at Alseniz and other villages to the left, to keep up the communication with General Kray's corps, which is at Lautereck and Wolfstein, and has been lately reinforced by some battalions from the army. General Nauendorf is in march from Keyserlautern, which post, and those dependent on it, as Franckenstein, Nipstedt, and Hockspier, were this day occupied by a detachment of General Wurmser's army. Another strong corps of that army extends from Newstadt, behind the Spierbach and Rechbach, to the Rhine, occupying Speler, &c.

*FRANKFORT, Dec. 2.* By accounts from the Austrian army it appears, that the enemy's loss in the battle of the 14th of November amounted to about five thousand men, besides seven hundred prisoners; and that twenty-two pieces of cannon, with above one hundred ammunition-waggons, and some considerable magazines of different kinds, were taken by the Austrians; and other magazines, and numbers of ammunition-waggons, destroyed by the enemy in their retreat.

*VIENNA, Dec. 5.*

Her Imperial Majesty was yesterday happily delivered of a princess, who was this day christened by the names of Carolina Ludovica Leopoldina. There was on the occasion a grand gala at court.

*ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, Jan. 2, 1796.*

*Extract of a Letter from Admiral Sir John Laforey, Bart. Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at the Leeward Islands, to Mr. Nepean, dated Martinico, Oct. 22, 1795.*

ON the 20th instant the Bellona arrived, having joined Vice-admiral Thompson, on the 7th of September, in the latitude 43 deg. 20 min. N. and longitude 38 deg. 9 min. W.

In my last I informed you, sir, with the capture of the Superbe French frigate, of

22 guns, off Desada by the Vanguard; since which, I have received an account from Captain Warre, of his majesty's ship Mermaid, dated the 12th instant, that, cruising to windward of Grenada, he discovered on the 10th, off La Baye, a ship and a brig at anchor, which, upon seeing him, got under weigh, and made sail from him; but the brig soon bore up, and pushed in to a small bay called Requain, where the Mermaid followed her, and ran aground close to her. The French, however, got on shore to the number of seventy troops, and fifty that were her crew, and upwards of fifty had been landed by the ship while at anchor. Captain Warre got possession of the brig, which is named the Brutus, of 10 guns. The next day he chased the ship the whole day, but she escaped in the night. And in a subsequent letter, dated the 15th, he informed me, that he discovered her again on the 14th to leeward of him, when he chased and captured her, after an action of half an hour, with the loss of one man killed and three wounded in the Mermaid, and twenty killed and several wounded of the enemy; that both these vessels were conventional corvettes. The ship named the Republican, mounting 18 guns, and had on-board 250 or 260 men at the commencement of the action, with a French general and his staff, destined to command at Grenada. In a letter wrote the following day he acquainted me, that, upon his return to Grenada with his prize, he had the mortification to find that the important post of Gouyave or Charlotte Town, had been taken by the enemy the night before.

*Extract of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Parker, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Jamaica, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated on-board the Reasonable, Oct. 27, 1795.*

This morning his majesty's ship the Hannibal returned from a cruise to Port Royal, with two prizes, privateers; one the Convention of 12 guns and seventy-four men; the other a schooner of eight guns and sixty-six men.

*HORSE GUARDS, Jan 2, 1796.*

A dispatch of which the following is an extract, has been received by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State.

*Extract of a Letter from Major-General Leigh to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Martinico, Oct. 31, 1795.*

It is with real concern I inform you of the loss of the important post of Guayave in the island of Grenada; for the particulars of which I beg leave to refer you to Brigadier-general Nicholls's letter of the 18th instant, and



and to the several reports made to him upon that event, copies of which I have the honour to inclose.

*Extract of a Letter from Brigadier-General Oliver Nicholls to his Excellency Major-General Leigh, dated Grenada, Oct. 18, 1795.*

It is with extreme concern that I report to your excellency the loss of the post of Gouyave. The enemy having attacked and carried by assault, the night of the 15th instant, the strong hill which commands the harbour and town, Lieutenant-colonel Schaw did not think his force strong enough to recover it immediately; and, the lower situation not being tenable, he retired to this town, unmolested by the enemy, a march of twelve miles, and arrived here the next morning about nine o'clock. His return, which is inclosed, will shew the loss of the 68th regiment. The 25th regiment had fifty-five sick there, with three subalterns. One subaltern, Lieutenant Ash, and sixteen of whom were able to march with Lieutenant-colonel Schaw's detachment, are here; the rest have fallen into the hands of the enemy.

*Copy of a Letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Schaw, of the 68th regiment, to Brigadier-General Nicholls, dated St. George's, Oct. 17, 1795.*

SIR, Inobedience to your desire I should have earlier given you an account of the particulars which obliged me to evacuate the post of Gouyave, but waited to ascertain our loss, which I find to be two sergeants and thirty-four rank and file missing, with one Lieutenant (Carr) supposed to be mortally wounded.

The insurgents attacked a strong picquet, consisting of a captain, two subalterns, four sergeants, and sixty rank and file, posted on the hill commanding the town of Gouyave; one subaltern of which, with twenty men, were detached along the ridge running west about two hundred yards from Captain Hamilton's post, in order to prevent their approach from coming up a valley in their front, which had the desired effect, as Ensign Connor, of the 68th regiment, a very steady and brave officer, checked a column, intended against him, by the vigilance and fire of his advanced centries. The column then (as he supposes) directed their route towards the captain's post, as a hot firing soon after commenced there, during a very heavy shower of rain. This circumstance induced Ensign Connor to march to the support of that post; but on his arrival fell in with Captain Hamilton, who told him he had been surrounded with a very superior body of the enemy, which had penetrated and driven

his party from the works; and that Lieutenant Carr, with several of his men, were badly wounded; all which circumstances were confirmed to me by the arrival of Captain Hamilton at Gouyave House, who made me a similar report. During this transaction a report prevailed that the insurgents were advancing from our rear, and the part of the works below; and I was confirmed in it by firing being heard from the latter-mentioned place. This prevented me from calling up Colonel Webster's black corps, who had the defence of the town and the protection of the hospital; as also Captain Angus's black corps, who had been posted to defend the sugar works, (and, as I had been informed, had perceived an enemy approaching,) to make an attempt to recover the hill again. An attempt, however, was made by all the men I could muster of the 68th regiment; but they were not able to advance further than the post already mentioned, on the left of the ridge, which was gained with great difficulty, from the very steep and slippery state, occasioned by the constant rains; and finding the enemy so superior in numbers, and in possession of a field-piece, from which they fired grape, as to make it too hazardous, and no probability of success.

It was then the general sense of the officers under my command, whose opinions I severally took, to retreat to Sau-tuer, but, that afterwards being found impracticable, it was resolved to march to St. George's.

This, sir, is a detail of facts, as nearly as I can state to you, of this unfortunate business, but which, however to be lamented, will not, I trust, appear to you either to have proceeded from any want of vigilance or neglect of duty on my side. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN B. SCHAW.

P. S. I have the honour herewith to send you a state of the 68th regiment.

*Return of the 68th Regiment of Foot, of Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File, on the 16th of Oct. 1795.*

Present.—10 officers, 17 sergeants, 15 drummers, 107 rank and file.

Missing.—2 sergeants, 34 rank and file.

Sick at Gouyave.—29 rank and file.

Total.—10 officers, 19 sergeants, 15 drummers, 170 rank and file.

(Signed)

J. B. SCHAW.

*Copy of a Letter from Captain Hamilton, of the 68th Regiment, to Brigadier-General Nicholls, dated St. George's, Oct. 17, 1795.*

I am this moment honoured with your letter of this date, in answer to which I beg leave to state, that I joined the guard

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on Gouave-hill, after dark on the night of the 15th instant, and, on enquiry, found it consisted of one serjeant, two corporals, and thirty-eight men, of which eleven were blacks. I then detached one corporal and three British soldiers to a path pointed out by Captain Pumber, to Colonel Schaw, with orders, that should the enemy approach that way, to give them their fire, and then retire to the huts, and alarm the men there, and immediately to join Colonel Schaw at the house, it being impossible for them to rejoin me, from the nature of the ground. This left me with one serjeant, one corporal, and thirty-five men, including the blacks. I then fell them in round the breast-work, in order that each man should know his post in case of an alarm; on doing which, I found that I was obliged to leave a space of two yards and better between each man, to enable me to occupy the whole of the ground within the breast-work; and, as the night was extremely dark, I thought it necessary to put thirteen centries. At a little after eleven o'clock, Lieutenant Carr (who was my subaltern) visited the centries, and, on his return, informed me he had found them perfectly alert. In about five minutes after which we heard one of them fire, on which we immediately turned out, and had time to fire from four to five rounds per man, previous to the enemy's getting up to the breast-work, after which

we disputed it with our bayonets, until overpowered by numbers. Some confusion took place among the gunners, which prevented them from firing the field-piece (the only gun we had) immediately on the attack; and, on the enemy's getting near the breast-work, it was impossible to fire it without endangering our own men; and indeed it would have been of little avail, as we were attacked on all sides. With respect to our loss, or that of the enemy, I cannot take upon me to say what it may have been, as the night was so dark as to prevent me from seeing; neither can I attempt to say what was their strength. Before Lieutenant Carr and I quitted the post, there appeared to be at least one hundred of the enemy within the breast-work, and, from the noise without, they seemed to be advancing in great force. I am inclined to think their loss must have been considerable, as our fire appeared to be well directed, and our men disputed the breast-work bravely with their bayonets; besides which, they (the enemy) fired on each other for some time after we had been obliged to quit the post. Lieutenant Carr remained with me within the works (though wounded) until we found that our men were all driven out, after which we retired. The man who bayoneted him attacked me, but I fortunately shot him, by which I escaped. I have the honour to be, &c.

## DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

**A**DVICE is received in town that Trincomale has surrendered to his majesty's forces under Colonel Stuart and Admiral Ranier. Trincomale is a port of considerable importance in the island of Ceylon, situated at the southern point of Indostan. It affords the best security to the navigation to the coast of Coromandel and Bengal, and has always been considered as the key of that bay. It was taken by the British forces from the Dutch during the last war, but retaken in an unaccountable manner by Admiral Suffrein shortly after. The island was so early celebrated for its beauty and fertility, that the ancient Indians called it *Tamraparni*, i.e. *the Land of Pleasure*. It produces cinnamon of the best kind, and has been regarded as the most important of the Dutch possessions in India. It is an additional circumstance of the most fortunate tendency that the king of the island has lately been so strongly disaffected to the Dutch, that the present change will be highly acceptable to the natives. The

official accounts shall be given in our next.

On the 13th of December the Aid transport with troops on-board for St. Domingo, one of the ships under convoy of Admiral Christian of the Glory, sprung a leak in a heavy gale of wind at S. W. in the Bay of Biscay: having six feet of water in her hold, and all her boats stowed in by a heavy sea, she was obliged to bear away for Plymouth. On the 16th in the morning, she was chased by a French brig privateer of twelve guns, carrying six and nine pounders, five leagues to the westward of the Scilly islands. The Aid, having only six-pounders, judged it prudent to make sail from her, but, notwithstanding the enemy's superiority in strength, was determined to give her battle sooner than surrender. After six hours chase, the privateer came within gun-shot, and hoisted English colours, and fired a gun to leeward; but it was too visible this was only a deception. Every thing being prepared for action on-board the Aid, and



and the privateer finding she was discovered, hauled down the English colours, and hoisted French, and gave the *Aid* a broadside, which she immediately returned. The action continued very warm on both sides for upwards of an hour; at length the privateer attempted to board the *Aid*, and ran close along-side of her; one of her men got into the main chains, but was immediately killed by the mate of the *Aid*. She then dropped astern, and made a second attempt to board, but, as fast as her men came near, they were killed by the musquetry of the soldiers and sailors on-board. She then struck her colours to the *Aid* transport; but the disabled state she was in, her rigging and sails being much damaged by the enemy's shot, favoured the escape of the privateer, and she got off, and had the impudence afterwards to hoist her colours in sight of us. During the engagement the *Aid* had only five men wounded. The privateer is supposed to have lost a number of men, as many were seen to fall.

The executive directory of the French republic has, according to a prevailing report, proposed to the court of Vienna the following plan for a general pacification:—First, England is to restore to France the island of Corsica, the French possessions in the East and West Indies, and to cede to the French republic the island of St. Helena. Secondly, England is to keep in her possession the Cape of Good Hope and all the Dutch establishments in the East Indies. Thirdly, Holland is merely to preserve her possessions in the West Indies. The Prince Stadtholder is not only to be reinstated in his dignity, but also to have all the Austrian Netherlands, except the districts of Hammalt, Tournay, and Luxembourg, which are to remain in the hands of the French. Fourthly, The King of Prussia is to have both Austrian and Dutch Guelders, and the duchy of Bergues. Fifthly, The Elector Palatine is to receive the bishopric of Liege and the duchy of Limbourg. Sixthly, All the provinces situated on the left banks of the Rhine are to be restored to their former owners. Seventhly, Austria is to be indemnified for the loss of the Low Countries by the cession of the bishoprics of Passau, Salzburg, and Bechroygaden, of the whole duchy of Bavaria to the Iser, and the grand bailliwick of Stranbingen.

A Mrs. Reed was taken into custody a few days ago at Bishop's Frome, in the county of Worcester, on suspicion of being concerned in the murder of her late husband, Captain Reed, about two years ago, and fully committed to Gloucester

gaol for trial. The circumstances of the murder are, that, about two years ago, it is supposed Mr. Reed had some poison given him in his broth, and, on finding himself indisposed, he went to lie down on the bed, and that while he was there she went up to see him, and her brother, following with a broom-stick, struck him three violent blows over his head; she immediately called out Murder, and her brother escaped. The doctor, being sent for, came and dressed his head, and left him about six o'clock in the evening, observing, that there was no danger of death from the wounds; but before nine Mr. Reed died. She applied the same evening for a coffin to be made, and wished to have had him buried the next day, observing, that as he died suddenly he would not keep; which circumstance gave rise to a suspicion, and he was opened by a surgeon, and a liquid which was taken out of his stomach being given to a dog, it proved his immediate death; accordingly the coroner's jury sat on the body, and brought in a verdict of Wilful Murder. During the whole seven days she was in custody of the officer, previous to her being committed for trial, she could not be persuaded to take any other refreshment than a little wine and water; and her health every day seems to decline. The brother of Mrs. Reed above-mentioned, was found dead about four days after the decease of Captain Reed, and is supposed to have shot himself with a blunderbuss, found lying by him, his head being blown to pieces. When this shocking affair took place, Mrs. R. was examined before the coroner's jury, and discharged for want of evidence. On a trial which took place a few days since in the Court of King's Bench, for the recovery of two thousand pounds from the Royal Exchange Assurance Company, insured on Captain R.'s life, some very suspicious circumstances came to light, which caused her to be taken up a second time. She was in so weak a state of health when Rival, one of the Bow-street officers, who was sent in search of her, accompanied by Mr. Reed, a brother of the deceased, arrived at her father's house, where she resided, that they did not let her know the real cause of their visit, telling her that she was only required to come to Gloucester to answer some questions relative to a trial then pending in London, concerning two thousand pounds that had been insured on her husband's life, and to give evidence concerning which her father had been subpoenaed on the trial, but, not being able to give the necessary information, he was brought to Gloucester, where

he

he would be kept in custody till her arrival. Under this idea she cheerfully set out on foot, they having three miles to walk before a post-chaise could be procured; but, her three children following her with the most piteous lamentation, she fainted away several times before they got to an inn; where, getting a chaise, they proceeded to Gloucester; but soon after meeting her father on the road, who had been to London on the trial alluded to, and which had been given against Mrs. K. she gave a loud scream, and said they had deceived her; and, on her being told that she stood charged with being accessory to the murder of her husband, she positively declared her innocence, though present in the room at the time her brother assaulted him while he lay sick on his bed, and beat him severely about the head with a broom-stick; all knowledge of his having been poisoned she also utterly disclaimed.

COWES, *December 31.* "Disfmal as the tale is I am going to relate, I cannot help communicating it, because it will most likely be differently related by different persons, and you will like to know the facts, as I have heard them this morning from the master of the vessel the John and Elizabeth, from Guernsey, who says, that on Saturday last he took on-board at Jersey 115 men of the Somerset and Suffolk fencibles, and five women, for which he was paid five shillings each, to land them at the first port in England he could make. That he afterwards put into Guernsey for water and provisions, and sailed from thence on Monday morning last, between which time and his arrival here yesterday afternoon, at four, he met with such heavy gales of wind as to oblige him to desire the passengers to go below, and submit to have the hatches fastened down over them, to prevent the vessel from filling and sinking; and on opening them yesterday morning, shocking to relate! fifty of the number, viz. forty-seven men, and three women, were found suffocated to death, and were actually thrown overboard before the vessel got in here: two more have since died."

#### HIGH TREASON.

DUBLIN, *December 22.*

The court sat at a quarter past twelve o'clock to proceed upon the trial of James Weldon, who stood indicted on a charge of high treason, for compassing the king's death, and for adhering to the king's enemies.

The indictment consisted of eight counts, charging the prisoner with associating himself with a seditious and trea-

sonable body of men called Defenders; administering an unlawful oath to William Lawler, thereby binding and enlisting him to aid and assist the French, at open war with his majesty, against his said majesty; at divers other times aiding, assisting, and conspiring with, certain persons, to overturn the government interest, the Protestant religion, and imagining the king's death, and adhering to his enemies.

The length of this trial renders it impossible for us to give a full sketch of the proceedings.

The principal evidence was William Lawler, an approver, who swore that the oath, called the Defender's oath, and another called the Test, in form of a catechism, were administered to him by the prisoner, at a public house in Barrack-street, in the presence of two persons, one named Kennedy, the latter of whom was sworn along with him. He could not tell the day, nor even the month, in which this occurred: it was about a fortnight after the Fermanagh militia had left town: he also swore that the prisoner explained to him the signals whereby defenders should know each other, and by means of which he was afterwards admitted to societies of defenders. The prisoner was never present at any of these societies.

Mr. Oliver Carleton proved the apprehension of Kennedy and Brady, in the house of Mr. Kennedy, glassman, Stephen-street, and finding upon Kennedy, in the fob of his breeches pocket, the printed copies of the oath and test before-mentioned, and which the first swore were identically the same on which he had been sworn by the prisoner. No other evidence was adduced on the part of the prosecution.

Two witnesses were called to the prisoner's character: each person had known him for near twenty years, and gave him an excellent character.

The jury retired for about eight minutes, and found the prisoner *guilty*.

Since the trial and conviction of Weldon, several others (ignorant deluded young men) have been put on their trials and acquitted. Weldon was convicted on the evidence of a single witness, and he an approver. In England, it is to be observed, that the law requires two witnesses to prove the overt act of high treason; but it is not so in Ireland. Weldon was a private in the 7th regiment of horse, or black dragoons. Wednesday, the 2d of March, is the time fixed for his execution; but it is thought his life will be spared.







*Orme Jun<sup>r</sup> sculp<sup>t</sup>*

THE RT HON<sup>BLE</sup> LORD SHULDHAM.

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ANECDOTES OF THE RIGHT HONOURABLE MOLYNEUX LORD  
SHULDHAM.

**T**HE Right Hon. Molyneux Shuldham Baron Shuldham, created a peer July 24, 1776, is the youngest son of Lemuel Shuldham, a clergyman of the church of England, who resided to the day of his death on a valuable living in the diocese of Ossory, in the kingdom of Ireland. He married Elizabeth Molyneux, daughter of Pooley Molyneux, Esq. of Villamalvey, in the county of Longford; by whom he had two sons and one daughter. The youngest son, of whom we are now speaking, entered the British Navy at ten years of age. Being endued with a quick understanding and remarkable memory, he had at this early period laid a good foundation for the classics, which he improved so far in his leisure hours when on the ocean, that few gentlemen who have passed their lives at the universities have a more competent knowledge of the works of learned authors. But, what is most essential to notice here as to his profession, are his great integrity, and good conduct, by which he arrived, after a series of events that are too many in this publication to enumerate, at the honour of being appointed to the different commands at Newfoundland, America, the British fleet in the channel and at Plymouth, all of which he filled with equal credit to his naval abilities, and the unimpeached honour of his principles. On his return from the command in America, to give place to Earl Howe, as being brother to the commander of the land forces, his majesty was graciously pleased to confer on Admiral Shuldham the dignity of a baron of the kingdom of Ireland, to prove that no misconduct was imputed to him, or that his recall proceeded from any disapprobation; nor did he know of the honour intended until it was determined on.

Early in the year 1746, he was appointed to the command of the *Blast* sloop of war, and sent out upon the Jamaica station. At that time Great

Britain was engaged in a war with Spain; and it was not long before the veteran commander of the *Blast* sloop was attacked on his cruise by two Spanish xebecs, both of superior force to himself. The English ship was immediately cleared for action, and a severe engagement took place. The Spaniards fought with uncommon ardour, and made various attempts to board the sloop, but for a long time in vain. The British sailors fought like lions, until the sails and rigging were all shot away, and the sloop unmanageable on the water. In this state they were called upon to strike, but our noble commander stood by the colours, swearing they should not be struck while a gun could be brought to bear upon the enemy. The action was again renewed; in the event of which the Spaniards boarded the sloop, and one of the revengful dons made instantly up to Captain Shuldham, and attempted to fire a pistol in his face, as he stood protecting the colours. The pistol missed fire, upon which the Spaniard knocked him down with the butt-end of it, trampled upon his body, and attempted to strike the colours; at which instant one of Captain Shuldham's men, coming up, clapped a pistol to the desperado's head, and demolished him at once. Being however overpowered, they were obliged to strike; having thirty-eight men killed, and thirty-nine desperately wounded, out of only one hundred and thirteen.

After the Spaniards had taken possession of the sloop, they removed Captain Shuldham on-board one of the xebecs, where, notwithstanding he had received two severe wounds, in his breast and face, they used him extremely ill, took from him all his property, and afterwards conspired to kill him; which certainly would have taken place, had it not been for the interposition of a French officer then on-board. They were all carried into the Havannah prison-

ers of war, when the French officer most generously waited upon the Spanish governor, and made known the ill treatment the captain and crew of the English ship had received. The governor very humanely sent for Captain Shuldham to his house, and afforded him every medical aid and assistance his situation required. He then sent for the captains of the xebecs on-shore; and, when they were brought before him, he desired Captain Shuldham to pass sentence upon them for immediate execution. This the British captain declined; requesting that no such severe punishment might be inflicted. The governor, however, dismissed them the service, saying they should never again disgrace their country by a similar conduct. He then made every reparation in his power to Captain Shuldham, giving him in gold the value of the property he and his officers had been plundered of, and

presented him with letters of credit on the bank of Madrid, to draw for any sum he might have occasion for during the time he should continue on his parole in Spain.

The late Earl of Sandwich had a great personal affection for Lord Shuldham from his first outset, which he evinced by never losing sight of his interest whether his friend was near or absent; but this trait of sincerity in the noble earl above mentioned was peculiar to his nature, and is one of the few instances which does honour to the human heart. Lord Shuldham represented the borough of Fowey two sessions of parliament. He married the widow of John Harcourt, Esq. of Anchorwyke, in Buckinghamshire; and, being fond of retirement and moral pleasures, he spends a great part of his time in the country, where he experiences the truth of his motto, chosen by himself:

*"Post Nubile Phœbus."*

#### HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 342.

THE army at New York began in 1777 to exercise a kind of predatory war, by sending out parties to destroy magazines, make incursions, and take or destroy such forts as lay on the banks of rivers, to which their great command of shipping gave them access. In this they were generally successful: the provincial magazines at Peek's Hill, a place of about fifty miles distant from New York, were destroyed, the town of Dunbury in Connecticut burnt, and that of Ridgefield in the same province was taken possession of. In returning from the last expedition, however, the British were greatly harassed by the enemy under Generals Arnold, Wooster, and Sullivan; but they made good their retreat in spite of all opposition, with the loss of only 170 killed and wounded. On the American side the loss was much greater; General Wooster was killed, and Arnold in the most imminent danger. On the other hand, the Americans destroyed the stores at Sagg-harbour, in Long

Island, and made prisoners of all who defended the place.

As this method of making war, however, could answer but little purpose, and favoured more of the barbarous incursions of savages than of a war carried on by a civilized people, it was resolved to make an attempt on Philadelphia. At first it was thought that this could be done through the Jerseys; but General Washington had received such large reinforcements, and posted himself so strongly, that it was found to be impracticable. Many stratagems were used to draw him from this strong situation, but without success; so that it was found necessary to make the attempt on Philadelphia by sea. While the preparations necessary for this expedition were going forward, the Americans found means to make amends for the capture of General Lee by that of General Prescott, who was seized in his quarters with his aide-de-camp, in much the same manner as General Lee had been. This was exceed-



exceedingly mortifying to the general himself, as he had not long before set a price upon General Arnold, by offering a sum of money to any one that apprehended him; which the latter answered by setting a lower price upon General Prescott.

The month of July was far advanced before the preparations for the expedition against Philadelphia completed; and it was the 23d before the fleet was able to sail from Sandy Hook. The force employed in this expedition consisted of 36 battalions of British and Hessians, a regiment of light horse, and a body of loyalists raised at New York. The remainder of these, with 17 battalions, and another body of light horse, were stationed at New York under Sir Henry Clinton. Seven battalions were stationed at Rhode Island. After a week's sailing they arrived at the mouth of the Delaware; but there received certain intelligence, that the navigation of the river was so effectually obstructed, that no possibility of forcing a passage remained. Upon this it was resolved to proceed southward to Chesapeak Bay in Maryland, from whence the distance to Philadelphia was not very great, and where the provincial army would find less advantage from the nature of the country than in the Jerseys.

The navigation from Delaware to Chesapeak took up the best part of the month of August, and that up the bay itself was extremely difficult and tedious. At last, having sailed up the river Elk as far as was practicable, the troops were landed without opposition, and set forward on their intended expedition. On the news of their arrival in Chesapeak, General Washington left the Jerseys, and hastened to the relief of Philadelphia; and in the beginning of September met the royal army at Brandy-wine Creek about mid-day, between the head of the Elk and Philadelphia. Here he adhered to his former method of skirmishing and harassing the royal army on its march; but, as this proved insufficient to stop its progress, he retired to that side of the creek next to Philadelphia, with an intent to dispute the passage. This brought

on a general engagement on the 11th of September, in which the Americans were worsted through the superior discipline of the British troops; and it was only through the approach of night that they were saved from being entirely destroyed. On this occasion the provincials lost about 1000 in killed and wounded, besides 400 taken prisoners.

The loss of this battle proved also the loss of Philadelphia. General Washington retired towards Lancaster, an inland town at a considerable distance from Philadelphia. Here, however, the British general took such measures as must have forced the provincials to a second engagement; but a violent rain which lasted a day and a night prevented his design. General Washington, though he could not prevent the loss of Philadelphia, still adhered to his original plan of distressing the royal party, by laying ambushes and cutting off detached parties: but in this he was less successful than formerly; and one of his own detachments, which lay in ambush in a wood, were themselves surprised and entirely defeated, with the loss of 300 killed and wounded, besides a great number taken, and all their arms and baggage.

General Howe, now perceiving that the Americans would not venture another battle even for the sake of their capital, took peaceable possession of it on the 26th of September. His first care was then to cut off, by means of strong batteries, the communication between the upper and lower parts of the river; which was executed notwithstanding the opposition of some American armed vessels; one of which, carrying 36 guns, was taken. His next task was to open a communication with it by sea; and this was a work of no small difficulty. A vast number of batteries and forts had been erected, and immense machines formed like *chevaux de frize*, from whence they took their name, sunk in the river to prevent its navigation. As the fleet was sent round to the mouth of the river in order to cooperate with the army, this work, however difficult, was accomplished; nor did the provincials give much

opposition, as well knowing that all places of this kind were now untenable. General Washington, however, took the advantage of the royal army being divided to attack the camp of the principal division of it that lay at German-town in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia. In this he met with very little success; for, though he reached the place of destination by three o'clock in the morning, the patrols had time to call the troops to arms. The Americans, notwithstanding, made a very resolute attack: but they were received with such bravery, that they were compelled to abandon the attempt, and retreat in great disorder; with the advantage, however, of carrying off their cannon, though pursued for a considerable way, after having 300 killed, 600 wounded, and upwards of 400 taken prisoners, among whom were fifty-four officers. On the British side, the loss amounted to 430 wounded and prisoners, and seventy killed; but among the last were General Agnew and Colonel Bird, with some other excellent officers.

There still remained two strong forts on the Delaware to be reduced. These were Mud Island and Red Bank. The various obstructions which the Americans had thrown in the way rendered it necessary to bring up the *Augusta*, a ship of the line, and the *Merlin* frigate, to the attack of Mud Island; but during the heat of action both were grounded. Upon this the Americans sent down four fire-ships, and directed the whole fire from their galleys against them. The former were rendered ineffectual by the courage and skill of the British seamen; but during the engagement both the *Augusta* and *Merlin* took fire and were burnt to ashes, and the other ships obliged to withdraw. The enemy, encouraged by this unsuccessful attempt, proceeded to throw new obstructions in the way; but the British general having found means to convey a number of cannon and to erect batteries within a gun-shot of the fort by land, and bringing up three ships of the line which mounted heavy cannon, the garrison, after making a vigorous defence for one

day, perceiving that preparations were making for a general assault on the next, abandoned the place in the night. Those who defended Red Bank followed their example, and abandoned it on the approach of Lord Cornwallis. A great number of the American shipping, now finding themselves entirely destitute of any protection, sailed up the river in the night-time. Seventeen, however, remained, whose retreat was intercepted by a frigate and some armed vessels; on which the Americans ran them ashore and burnt them, to prevent their falling into the enemy's hands.

Thus the campaign of 1777 in Pennsylvania concluded successfully on the part of the British. In the north, however, matters wore a different aspect. The expedition in that quarter had been projected by the British ministry as the most effectual method that could be taken to crush the colonies at once. The four provinces of New England had originally begun the confederacy against Britain, and were still considered as most active in the continuation of it; and it was thought, that any impression made upon them would contribute in an effectual manner to the reduction of all the rest. For this purpose, an army of four thousand chosen British troops and three thousand Germans were put under the command of General Burgoyne; General Carleton was directed to use his interest with the Indians to persuade them to join in this expedition; and the province of Quebec was to furnish large parties to join in the same. The officers who commanded under General Burgoyne were General Phillips of the artillery, Generals Fraser, Powel, and Hamilton, with the German officers Generals Keidesel and Speecht. The soldiers, as has already been observed, were all excellently disciplined, and had been kept in their winter-quarters with all imaginable care, in order to prepare them for the expedition on which they were going. To aid the principal expedition, another was formed on the Mohawk River under Colonel St. Leger, who was to be assisted by Sir John Johnson, son to the famous Sir William



William Johnson, who had so greatly distinguished himself in the war of 1755.

On the 21st of June 1777, the army encamped on the western side of the Lake Champlain; where, being joined by a considerable body of Indians, General Burgoyne made a speech, in which he exhorted these new allies to lay aside their ferocious and barbarous manner of making war; to kill only such as opposed them in arms; and to spare prisoners, with such women and children as should fall into their hands. After issuing a proclamation, in which the force of Britain and that which he commanded was set forth in very ostentatious terms, the campaign opened with the siege of Ticonderoga. The place was very strong, and garrisoned by 6000 men under General Sinclair; nevertheless, the works were so extensive that even this number was scarcely sufficient to defend them properly. They had therefore omitted to fortify a rugged eminence called Sugar Hill, the top of which overlooked and effectually commanded the whole works; vainly imagining that the difficulty of the ascent would be sufficient to prevent the enemy from taking possession of it. On the approach of the first division of the army, the provincials abandoned and set fire to their outworks; and so expeditious were the British troops, that by the 5th of July every post was secured which was judged necessary for investing it completely. A road was soon after made to the very summit of that eminence which the Americans had with such confidence supposed could not be ascended; and so much were they now disheartened, that they instantly abandoned the fort entirely, taking the road to Skenesborough, a place to the south of Lake George; while their baggage, with what artillery and military stores they could carry off, were sent to the same place by water. But the British generals were determined not to let them pass so easily. Both were pursued, and both overtaken. Their armed vessels consisted only of five galleys; two of which were taken,

and three blown up; on which they set fire to their boats and fortifications at Skenesborough. On this occasion the provincials lost two hundred boats, one hundred and thirty pieces of cannon, with all their provisions and baggage. Their land-forces under Colonel Francis made a brave defence against General Fraser; and, being greatly superior in number, had almost overpowered him, when General Reidesel with a large body of Germans came to his assistance. The enemy were now overpowered in their turn; and their commander being killed they fled on all sides with great precipitation. In this action two hundred Americans were killed, as many taken prisoners, and above six hundred wounded, many of whom perished in the woods for want of assistance.

During the engagement General Sinclair was at Castleton, about six miles from the place; but instead of going forward to Fort Anne, the next place of strength, he repaired to the woods which lie between that fortress and New England. General Burgoyne, however, detached Colonel Hill with the ninth regiment, in order to intercept such as should attempt to retreat towards Fort Anne. On his way he met with a body of the enemy, said to be six times as numerous as his own; but, after an engagement of three hours, they were obliged to retire with great loss. After so many disasters, despairing of being able to make any stand at Fort Anne, they set fire to it and retired to Fort Edward. In all these engagements the loss of killed and wounded in the royal army did not exceed two hundred men.

General Burgoyne was now obliged to suspend his operations for some time, and wait at Skenesborough for the arrival of his tents, provisions, &c. but employed this interval in making roads through the country about St. Anne, and in clearing a passage for his troops to proceed against the enemy. This was attended with incredible toil; but all obstacles were surmounted with equal patience and resolution by the army. In short,  
after

after undergoing the utmost difficulty that could be undergone, and making every exertion that man could make, he arrived with his army before Fort Edward about the end of July. Here General Schuyler had been for some time endeavouring to recruit the shattered American forces, and had been joined by General Sinclair with the remains of his army; the garrison of Fort George also, situated on the lake of that name, had evacuated the place and retired to Fort Edward.

But, on the approach of the royal army, they retired from thence also, and formed their head quarters at Saratoga. Notwithstanding the great successes of the British general, they shewed not the least disposition to submit, but seemed only to consider how they might make the most effectual resistance. For this purpose, the militia was every where raised and drafted to join the army at Saratoga; and such numbers of volunteers were daily added, that they soon began to recover from the terror into which they had been thrown. That they might have a commander whose abilities could be relied on, General Arnold was appointed, who repaired to Saratoga with a considerable train of artillery; but, receiving intelligence that Colonel St. Leger was proceeding with great rapidity in his expedition on the Mohawk River, he removed to Stillwater, a place about half-way between Saratoga and the junction of the Mohawk and Hudson's River. The colonel, in the mean time, had advanced as far as Fort Stanwix; the siege of which he pressed with great vigour. On the 6th of August, understanding that a supply of provisions, escorted by eight hundred or nine hundred men was on their way to the fort, he dispatched Sir John Johnson with a strong detachment to intercept it. This he did so effectually, that, besides intercepting the provisions, four hundred of its guard were slain, two hundred taken, and the rest escaped with great difficulty. The garrison, however, were not to be intimidated by this disaster, nor by the threats or representations of St. Leger: on the contrary, they made several successful

fallies under Colonel Willet, the second in command; and this gentleman, in company with another, even ventured out of the fort, and, eluding the vigilance of the enemy, passed through them in order to hasten the march of General Arnold to their assistance.

Thus the affairs of Colonel St. Leger seemed to be in no very favourable situation notwithstanding his late success, and they were soon totally ruined by the desertion of the Indians. They had been alarmed by the report of General Arnold's advancing with two thousand men to the relief of the fort; and, while the colonel was attempting to give them encouragement, another report was spread, that General Burgoyne had been defeated with great slaughter, and was now flying before the provincials. On this he was obliged to do as they thought proper; and the retreat could not be effected without the loss of the tents and some of the artillery and military stores.

General Burgoyne, in the mean time, notwithstanding the difficulties he had already sustained, found that he must still encounter more. The roads he had made with so much labour and pains were destroyed either by the wetness of the season or by the enemy; so that the provisions he brought from Fort George could not arrive at his camp without the most prodigious toil. On hearing of the siege of Fort Stanwix by Colonel St. Leger, he determined to move forwards, in hopes of inclosing the enemy betwixt his own army and that of St. Leger, or of obtaining the command of all the country between Fort Stanwix and Albany; or, at any rate, a junction with Colonel St. Leger would be effected, which could not but be tended with the most happy consequences. The only difficulty was the want of provisions; and this it was proposed to remedy by reducing the provincial magazines at Bennington. For this purpose, Colonel Baume, a German officer of great bravery, was chosen with a body of five hundred men. The place was about twenty miles from Hudson's River; and, to support Colonel Baume's



Baume's party, the whole army marched up the river's bank, and encamped almost opposite to Saratoga, with the river betwixt it and that place. An advanced party was posted at Batten Kill, between the camp and Bennington, in order to support Colonel Baume. In their way the British seized a large supply of cattle and provisions, which were immediately sent to the camp; but the badness of the roads retarded their march so much, that intelligence of their design was sent to Bennington. Understanding now that the American force was greatly superior to his own, the colonel acquainted the general, who immediately dispatched Colonel Breyman with a party to his assistance; but, through the same causes that had retarded the march of Colonel Baume, this assistance could not arrive in time. General Starke, in the mean time, who commanded at Bennington, determined to attack the two parties separately; and for this purpose advanced against Colonel Baume, whom he surrounded on all sides and attacked with the utmost violence. The troops defended themselves with great valour, but were to a man either killed or taken. Colonel Breyman, after a desperate engagement, had the good luck to effect a retreat through the darkness of the night, which otherwise he could not have done, as his men had expended all their ammunition, being forty rounds to each.

General Burgoyne, thus disappointed in his attempt on Bennington, applied himself with indefatigable diligence to procure provisions from Fort George; and, having at length amassed a sufficient quantity to last for a month, he threw a bridge of boats over the river Hudson, which he crossed about the middle of September, encamping on the hills and plains near Saratoga. As soon as he approached the provincial army, at this time encamped at Stillwater under General Gates, he determined to make an attack; for which purpose he put himself at the head of the central division of his army, having General Frazer and Colonel Breyman on the right, with Generals

Reidesfel and Philips on the left. In this position he advanced towards the enemy on the nineteenth of September. But the Americans did not now wait to be attacked: on the contrary, they attacked the central division with the utmost violence; and it was not until General Philips with the artillery came up that they could be repulsed. On this occasion, though the British troops lost only three hundred and thirty in killed and wounded, and the enemy no fewer than one thousand five hundred, the former were very much alarmed at the obstinate resolution shewn by the Americans. This did not, however, prevent them from advancing towards the enemy, and posting themselves the next day within cannon-shot of their lines. But their allies the Indians began to desert in great numbers; and at the same time the general was in the highest degree mortified by having no intelligence of any assistance from Sir Henry Clinton, as had been stipulated. He now received a letter from him, by which he was informed that Sir Henry intended to make a diversion on the North River in his favour. This afforded but little comfort: however, he returned an answer by several trusty persons whom he dispatched different ways, stating his present distressed situation, and mentioning that the provisions and other necessaries he had would only enable him to hold out till the 12th of October.

In the mean time the Americans, in order to cut off the retreat of the British army in the most effectual manner, undertook an expedition against Ticonderoga; but were obliged to abandon the enterprise after having surprised all the out-posts, and taken a great number of boats with some armed vessels, and a number of prisoners. The army under General Burgoyne, however, continued to labour under the greatest distresses; so that in the beginning of October he had been obliged to diminish the soldiers allowance. On the 7th of that month he determined to move towards the enemy. For this purpose he sent a body of one thousand five hundred men to reconnoitre their left wing;

wing; intending, if possible, to break through it in order to effect a retreat. The detachment, however, had not proceeded far when a dreadful attack was made upon the left wing of the British army, which was with great difficulty preserved from being entirely broken by a reinforcement brought up by General Frazer, who was killed in the attack. After the troops had with the most desperate efforts regained their camp, it was most furiously assaulted by General Arnold; who, notwithstanding all opposition, would have forced the entrenchments, had he not received a dangerous wound, which obliged him to retire. Thus the attack failed on the left; but on the right the camp of the German reserve was forced, Colonel Breyman killed, and his countrymen defeated with great slaughter, and the loss of all their artillery and baggage.

This was by far the heaviest loss the British army had sustained since the action at Bunker's Hill. The list of killed and wounded amounted to near one thousand two hundred, exclusive of the Germans; but the greatest misfortune was, that the enemy had now an opening on the right and rear of the British forces, so that the army was threatened with entire destruction. This obliged General Burgoyne once more to shift his position, that the enemy might also be obliged to alter theirs. This was accomplished on the night of the 7th, without any loss, and all the next day he continued to offer the enemy battle; but they were now too well assured of obtaining a complete victory, by cutting off all supplies from the British, to risk a pitched battle. Wherefore they advanced on the right side, in order to inclose him entirely; which obliged the general to direct a retreat towards Saratoga. But the enemy had now stationed a great force on the ford at Hudson's River, so that the only possibility of retreat was by securing a passage to Lake George; and to effect this, a body of workmen were detached, with a strong guard, to repair the roads and bridges that led to Fort Edward. As soon as they were gone,

however, the enemy seemed to prepare for an attack; which rendered it necessary to recal the guard, and the workmen being of course left exposed could not proceed.

In the mean time, the boats which conveyed provisions down Hudson's River were exposed to the continual fire of the American marksmen, who took many of them; so that it became necessary to convey the provisions over land. In this extreme danger, it was resolved to march by night to Fort Edward, forcing the passages at the fords either above or below the place; and, in order to effect this the more easily, it was resolved that the soldiers should carry their provisions on their backs, leaving behind their baggage and every other incumbrance. But, before this could be executed, intelligence was received that the enemy had raised strong entrenchments opposite to these fords, well provided with cannon, and that they had likewise taken possession of the rising ground between Fort George and Fort Edward, which in like manner was provided with cannon.

All this time the American army was increasing by the continual arrival of militia and volunteers from all parts. Their parties extended all along the opposite bank of Hudson's River, and some had even passed it in order to observe the least movement of the British army. The whole force under General Gates was computed at sixteen thousand men, while the army under General Burgoyne scarcely amounted to six thousand; and every part of the camp was reached by the grape and rifle shot of the enemy, besides a discharge from their artillery, which was almost incessant. In this state of extreme distress and danger, the army continued with the greatest constancy and perseverance till the evening of the 13th of October, when, an inventory of provisions being taken, it was found that no more remained than what was sufficient to serve for three days; and, a council of war being called, it was unanimously determined that there was no method now remaining but to treat with the enemy. In consequence



of this, a negociation was opened next day, which speedily terminated in a capitulation of the whole British army; the principal article of which was, that the troops were to have a free passage to Britain, on condition of not serving against America during the war. On this occasion, General Gates ordered his army to keep within their camp while the British soldiers went to a place appointed for them to lay down their arms, that the latter might not have the additional mortification of being made spectacles of so melancholy an event. The number of those who surrendered at Saratoga amounted to 5750, according to the American accounts; the list of sick and wounded left in the camp when the army retreated to Saratoga, to five hundred and twenty-eight; and the number of those lost by other accidents since the taking of Ticonderoga, to near three thousand. Thirty-five brass field-pieces, seven thousand stand of arms, clothing for an equal number of soldiers, with the tents, military chest, &c. constituted the booty this occasion.

Sir Henry Clinton, in the mean time, had sailed up the North River, and destroyed the two forts called Montgomery and Clinton, with Fort Constitution, and another place called Continental Village, where were barracks for two thousand men. Seventy large cannon were carried away, besides a number of smaller artillery, and a great quantity of stores and ammunition; a large boom and chain reaching across the river from Fort Montgomery to a point of land called St. Anthony's Nose, and which cost not less than seventy thousand pounds sterling, were partly destroyed and partly carried away, as was also another boom of little less value at Fort Constitution. The loss of the British army was but small in number, though some officers of great merit were killed in the different attacks.

Another attack was made by Sir James Wallace with some frigates, and a body of land-forces under General Vaughan. The place which now suffered was named Esopus: the fortifications were destroyed, and the

town itself was reduced to ashes, as that called Continental Village had been before.

But these successes, of whatever importance they might be, were now disregarded by both parties. They served only to irritate the Americans, flushed with their success; and they were utterly insufficient to raise the spirits of the British, who were now thrown into the utmost dismay.

On the 16th of March 1778, Lord North informed to the house of commons, that a paper had been laid before the king by the French ambassador, intimating the conclusion of an alliance between the court of France and the United States of America.

The preliminaries of this treaty had been concluded in the end of the year 1777, and a copy of them sent to congress, in order to counteract any proposals that might be made in the mean time by the British ministry. On the 6th of February 1778, the articles were formally signed, to the great satisfaction of the French nation.

They were in substance as follows:

1. If Great Britain should, in consequence of this treaty, proceed to hostilities against France, the two nations should mutually assist one another.

2. The main end of the treaty was in an effectual manner to maintain the independency of America.

3. Should those places of North America still subject to Britain be reduced by the colonies, they should be confederated with them, or subjected to their jurisdiction.

4. Should any of the West-India islands be reduced by France, they should be deemed its property.

5. No formal treaty with Great Britain should be concluded either by France or America without the consent of each other; and it was mutually engaged that they should not lay down their arms till the independence of the States had been formally acknowledged.

6. The contracting parties mutually agreed to invite those powers that had received injuries from Great Britain to join them in the common cause.

7. The

7. The United States guaranteed to France all the possessions in the West Indies which she should conquer; and France in her turn guaranteed the absolute independency of the States, and their supreme authority over every country they possessed, or might acquire during the war.

The notification of such a treaty as this could not but be looked upon as a declaration of war. On its being announced to the house, every one agreed in an address to his majesty, promising to stand by him to the utmost in the present emergency; but it was warmly contended by the members in opposition, that the present ministry ought to be removed on account of their numberless blunders and miscarriages in every instance. Many were of opinion, that the only way to extricate the nation from its troubles was to acknowledge the independency of America at once; and thus we might still do with a good grace what must inevitably be done at last, after expending much more blood and treasure than had yet been lavished in this unhappy contest. The ministerial party, however, entertained different ideas. Instigated by zeal for the national honour, it was determined at once to resent the arrogance of France, and prosecute hostilities against America with more vigour than ever, should the terms now offered them be rejected.

The Americans, in the mean time, assiduously employed their agents at the courts of Spain, Vienna, Prussia, and Tuscany, in order if possible to conclude alliances with them, or at least to procure an acknowledgment of their independency. As it had been reported that Britain intended to apply for assistance to Russia, the American commissioners were enjoined to use their utmost influence with the German princes to prevent such auxiliaries from marching through their territories, and to endeavour to procure the recal of the German troops already sent to America. To France they offered a cession of such West-India islands as should be taken by the united strength of France and America; and should Britain by their joint endeavours be dispossessed of

Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, these territories should be divided betwixt the two nations, and Great Britain totally excluded from the fishery. The proposals to the Spanish court were, that, in case they should think proper to espouse their quarrel, the American States should assist in reducing Pensacola under the dominion of Spain, provided their subjects were allowed the free navigation of the river Mississippi, and the use of the harbour of Pensacola; and they further offered, that, if agreeable to Spain, they would declare war against Portugal, should that power expel the American ships from its ports.

In the mean time, the troops under General Burgoyne were preparing to embark for Britain according to the convention at Saratoga; but, to their utter surprise, congress positively refused to allow them to embark, under pretence that some sinister designs were harboured on the part of Britain, and that they only wanted an opportunity to join the other troops at Philadelphia or New York.

The season for action was now approaching; and congress was indefatigable in its preparations for a new campaign, which it was confidently said would be the last. Among other methods taken for this purpose, it was recommended to all the young gentlemen of the colonies to form themselves into bodies of cavalry to serve at their own expence during the war. General Washington at the same time, in order to remove all incumbrances from his army, lightened the baggage as much as possible, by substituting sacks and portmanteaus in place of chests and boxes, and using pack-horses instead of wagons. On the other hand, the British army, expecting to be speedily reinforced by 20,000 men, thought of nothing but concluding the war according to their wishes before the end of the campaign. It was with the utmost concern, as well as indignation, therefore, that they received the news of Lord North's conciliatory bill. It was universally looked upon as a national disgrace; and some even tore the cockades from their



their hats, and trampled them under their feet, as a token of their indignation. By the colonists it was received with indifference. The British commissioners endeavoured to make it as public as possible; and the congress, as formerly, ordered it to be printed in all the newspapers. On this occasion Governor Tryon inclosed several copies of the bill to General Washington in a letter, intreating that he would allow them to be circulated; to which the general returned for answer a copy of a newspaper in which the bill was printed, with the resolutions of congress upon it. These were, That whoever presumed to make a separate agreement with Britain should be deemed a public enemy; that the United States could not with any propriety keep correspondence with the commissioners until their independence was acknowledged, and the British fleets and armies removed from America. At the same time, the colonies were warned not to suffer themselves to be deceived into security by any offers that might be made; but to use their utmost endeavours to send their quotas with all diligence into the field. The individuals with whom the commissioners conversed on the subject of the conciliatory bill, generally returned for answer, that the day of reconciliation was past; and that the haughtiness of Britain had extinguish all filial regard in the breasts of the Americans.

About this time also Mr. Silas Deane arrived from France with two copies of the treaty of commerce and alliance to be signed by congress. Advices of the most agreeable nature were also received from various parts, representing in the most favourable light the dispositions of the European powers; all of whom, it was said, wished to see the independence of America settled upon the most firm and permanent basis. Considering the situation of matters with the colonists at this time, therefore, it is no wonder that the commissioners found themselves unable to accomplish the errand on which they came. Their proposals were utterly rejected, them-

selves treated as spies, and all intercourse with them interdicted.

But, before any final answer could be obtained from congress, Sir Henry Clinton had taken the resolution of evacuating Philadelphia. Accordingly, on the 10th of June, after having made all necessary preparations, the army marched out of the city, and crossed the Delaware before noon with all its baggage and other incumbrances. General Washington, apprised of this design, had dispatched expresses into the Jerseys with orders to collect all the forces that could be assembled in order to obstruct the march of the enemy. After various movements on both sides, Sir Henry Clinton, with the royal army, arrived on the 27th of June at a place called Freehold; where, judging that the enemy would attack him, he encamped in a very strong situation. Here General Washington determined to make an attack as soon as the army had again begun its march. The night was spent in making the preparations, and General Lee with his division was ordered to be ready by day-break. But Sir Henry Clinton, justly apprehending that the chief object of the enemy was the baggage, committed it to the care of General Knyphausen, whom he ordered to set out early in the morning, while he followed with the rest of the army. The attack was accordingly made; but the British general had taken such care to arrange his troops properly, and so effectually supported his forces when engaged with the Americans, that the latter not only made no impression, but were with difficulty preserved from a total defeat by the advance of General Washington with the whole army. The British troops effected their retreat with the loss of 300 men, of whom many died through mere fatigue, without any wound. In this action General Lee was charged by General Washington with disobedience and misconduct in retreating before the British army. He was tried by a court-martial, and sentenced to a temporary suspension from his command. After they had arrived

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rived at Sandy Hook, a bridge of boats was by Lord Howe's directions thrown from thence over the channel which separated the island from the main land, and the troops were conveyed on-board the fleet; after which they sailed to New York. After sending some light detachments to watch the enemy's motions, General Washington marched towards the North River, where a great force had been collected to join him, and where it was now expected that some very capital operations would take place.

In the mean time, France had set about her preparations for the assistance of the Americans. On the 14th of April Count d'Estaing had sailed from Toulon with a strong squadron of ships of the line and frigates, and arrived on the coast of Virginia in the beginning of July, while the British fleet was employed in conveying the forces from Sandy Hook to New York. It consisted of one ship of 90 guns, one of 80, six of 74, and four of 64, besides several large frigates; and, exclusive of its complement of sailors, had 6000 marines and soldiers on-board. To oppose this the British had only six ships of 64 guns, three of 50, and two of 40, with some frigates and sloops. Notwithstanding this inferiority, however, the British admiral posted himself so advantageously, and shewed such superior skill, that d'Estaing did not think proper to attack him. He therefore remained at anchor four miles off Sandy Hook till the 22d of July, without effecting any thing more than the capture of some vessels, which, through ignorance of his arrival, fell into his hands.

The next attempt of the French admiral was, in conjunction with the Americans, on Rhode Island. It was proposed that d'Estaing, with the 6000 troops he had with him, should make a descent on the southern part of the island, while a body of the the Americans should take possession of the north; at the same time the French squadron was to enter the harbour of Newport, and take and

destroy all the British shipping. On the 8th of August the French admiral entered the harbour as was proposed, but found himself unable to do any material damage. Lord Howe, however, instantly set sail for Rhode Island; and d'Estaing, confiding in his superiority, immediately came out of the harbour to attack him. A violent storm parted the two fleets, and did so much damage that they were rendered totally unfit for action. The French, however, suffered most; and several of their ships, being afterwards attacked singly by the British, very narrowly escaped being taken. On the 20th of August he returned to Newport in a very shattered condition; and, not thinking himself safe there, sailed two days after for Boston. General Sullivan had landed in the mean time on the northern part of Rhode Island with 10,000 men. On the 17th of August they began their operations by erecting batteries, and making their approaches to the British lines. But General Pigot, who commanded in Newport, had taken such effectual care to secure himself on the land-side, that without the assistance of a marine force it was altogether impossible to attack him with any probability of success. The conduct of d'Estaing, therefore, who had abandoned them when master of the harbour, gave the greatest disgust to the people of New England, and Sullivan began to think of a retreat. On perceiving his intentions, the garrison sallied out upon him with so much vigour, that it was not without difficulty that he effected his retreat. He had not been long gone when Sir Henry Clinton arrived with a body of 4000 men; which, had it arrived sooner, would have enabled the British commander to have gained a decisive advantage over him, as well as to have destroyed the town of Providence, which, by its vicinity to Rhode Island, and the enterprises which were continually projected and carried on in that place, kept the inhabitants of Rhode Island in continual alarms.

The first British expedition was to Buzzard's Bay, on the coast of New Eng.



England and neighbourhood of Rhode Island. Here they destroyed a great number of privateers and merchantmen, magazines, with storehouses, &c. whence proceeding to a fertile and populous island called Martha's Vineyard, they carried off 10,000 sheep and 300 black cattle. Another expedition took place up the North River under Lord Cornwallis and General Knyphausen; the principal event of which was the destruction of a regiment of American cavalry known by the name of Washington's Light Horse. A third expedition was directed to Little Egg Harbour in New Jersey, a place noted for privateers, the destruction of which was its principal intention. It was conducted by Captains Ferguson and Collins, and ended in the destruction of the enemy's vessels, as well as of the place itself. At the same time part of another body of American troops, called Pulaski's Legion, was surprised, and a great number of them put to the sword.

The Americans had in the beginning of the year projected the conquest of West Florida; and one Captain Willing, with a party of resolute men, had made a successful incursion into the country. This awakened the attention of the British to the southern colonies, and an expedition against them was resolved on. Georgia was the place of destination; and, the more effectually to ensure success, Colonel Campbell, with a sufficient force, under convoy of some ships of war, commanded by Commodore Hyde Parker, embarked at New York, while General Prevost, who commanded in East Florida, was directed to set out with all the force he could spare. The armament from New York arrived off the coast of Georgia in the month of December; and, tho' the enemy was very strongly posted in an advantageous situation on the shore, the British troops made good their landing, and advanced towards Savannah the capital of the province. That very day they defeated the force of the provincials which opposed them; and took possession of the town with such celerity that the Americans had not time to

execute a resolution they had taken of setting it on fire. In ten days the whole province of Georgia was reduced, Sunbury alone excepted; and this was also brought under subjection by General Prevost in his march northward. Every proper method was taken to secure the tranquillity of the country; and rewards were offered for apprehending committee and assembly men, or such as they judged most inimical to the British interests. On the arrival of General Prevost, the command of the troops naturally devolved on him as the senior officer; and the conquest of Carolina was next projected.

In this attempt there was no small probability of success. The country contained a great number of friends to government, who now eagerly embraced the opportunity of declaring themselves; many of the inhabitants of Georgia had joined the royal standard; and there was not in the province any considerable body of provincial forces capable of opposing the efforts of regular and well-disciplined troops. On the first news of General Prevost's approach, the loyalists assembled in a body, imagining themselves able to stand their ground until their allies should arrive; but in this they were disappointed. The Americans attacked and defeated them with the loss of half their number. The remainder retreated into Georgia; and, after undergoing many difficulties, at last effected a junction with the British forces.

In the mean time, General Lincoln, with a considerable body of American troops, had encamped within 20 miles of Savannah; and another strong party had posted themselves at a place called *Briar's Creek*, farther up the river of the same name. Thus the extent of the British government was likely to be circumscribed within very narrow bounds. General Prevost therefore determined to dislodge the party at *Briar's Creek*: and the latter trusting to their strong situation, and being remiss in their guard, suffered themselves to be surprised on the 30th of March 1779; when they were utterly routed with the loss of 400 killed  
and

and taken, besides a great number drowned in the river or the swamps. The whole artillery, stores, baggage, and almost all the arms, of this unfortunate party, were taken, so that they could no more make any stand;

and thus the province of Georgia was once more freed from the enemy, and a communication opened with those places in Carolina where the royalists chiefly resided.

[To be continued.]

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND OF CEYLON, RECENTLY TAKEN FROM THE DUTCH.

**C**EYLON is a large island in the East Indies, about 250 miles in length and 200 in breadth. It abounds in trees and shrubs, valuable both on account of their timber and the gums or spices they produce. Among these Mr. Ives enumerates the euphorbium, tulip-tree, ebony, red-wood, cassia, cocoa-nut, cotton, linie, mangoe, citron, coffee; the trees producing balsam of capivi, gum gamboge, lac, and cenquenomale. This last is as yet unknown in Europe; but, according to the information of a Dutch surgeon, an oil or balsam is produced from it by distillation, which is of great use in paralytic complaints. There is also another gum named badule, which has been but lately discovered, and of which the use is as yet unknown. Here is also the black and yellow teak, the wood of which is of a most beautiful grain, but so hard that the cutting of it proves very destructive to carpenters tools. But the most remarkable, as well as the most useful, of the vegetable productions of Ceylon, is the cinnamon-tree, which grows wild in every wood on the south-west part of the island. The very young trees are not fit for rinding, and the old ones are cut down for firewood. The common flowering shrubs, of which the whole island is full, send forth a most agreeable fragrance every morning and evening. It abounds with high hills, between which the soil is a fat red earth; and the valleys are extremely pleasant, having a clear rivulet running through almost every one of them. Thus the finest fruits grow in vast plenty, and may be had at the most trifling rates; a pineapple being bought for less than a penny, and so of the rest. Other provisions are almost equally cheap; a dozen of fowls or five ducks being

fold for a rupee, not quite half-a-crown of English money. Here grows spontaneously a poisonous fruit, called Adam's apple. In shape it resembles the quarter of an apple cut out, with the two insides a little convex, and a continued ridge along the outer edges; and is of a beautiful orange colour. Pepper, ginger, and cardamoms, are also produced here; as well as five kinds of rice, which ripen one after another.

Ceylon produces also topazes, garnets, rubies, and other precious stones, which are discovered by washing the soil wherein they grow. It has likewise ores of copper, iron, and probably of tin, with veins of black crystal.

Common deer are found in this island in great abundance, as well as Guinea-deer; but the horned cattle are both very small and scarce; six of them weighed, all together, but 714 pounds, and one of these weighed only seventy pounds. They have, however, the largest and best elephants in the world; and their woods are infested by tygers, the most terrible of all ravenous beasts. They abound also with snakes of a monstrous size; one of which has been known to destroy a tyger and devour him at one meal. Mr. Ives saw one fifteen feet long and thirty inches in circumference. Spiders, centipedes, and scorpions, also grow here to an enormous size. Our author saw a spider here as large as a toad, with brown hair upon it, and legs as thick as the shank of a large tobacco-pipe. A scorpion, taken out of a piece of wood, was eight inches long, from head to tail, exclusive of the claws; the shell was as hard as that of a crab: and our author killed a centipede more than seven inches long. Here the mantis or creeping leaf is met with; which our  
author



author supposes to be a species of grasshoppers, having every member we see in common insects, though in shape and appearance it greatly resembles a leaf. It is of a green colour. The sea-coasts abound with fish, which are to be had very cheap. Neither harp-shells nor ventle-traps are to be met with here: but there are abundance of painted cockles, and others commonly called panama shells.

"The natives of this island (says our author) are the stoutest Indians I ever saw. Mr. Knox, in his history, reports many strange things of their religion and customs. He says, "that they have various ways of treating their dead. Some burn them, which is not uncommon in India; while others throw their limbs up into the forks of trees." This may be true, because, when our wood-cutters were once hewing down a stick of timber, there fell from it the skull and many bones of a human body; and I also saw here a human body hanging on a tree. Other historians relate, that the natives of Ceylon feed on human flesh; nay, that they eat the bodies of their deceased parents, imagining that no other sepulchre is so fit for them as their own bowels, since thereby they think they are changed into their own substance, and live again in themselves. This shocking custom is reported of the ancient Scythians, and possibly might have been used by the inhabitants of Ceylon, but is now in both countries entirely abolished: and yet even at this day these islanders are said to make cups of their parents skulls, with a view, that in the midst of their mirth and jollity they may be sure to preserve a respectful remembrance of them."

The Ceylonese make use of boats hollowed out of the trunks of trees, which are about twelve or fourteen feet long, but only as many inches broad within. The tree part in the bottom is much larger; but when the boat, on account of the size of the tree, is too small, they make a trough on the top of it square at both ends. Some boats, however, are much larger, being built between two trees; and with these they coast along shore: the others are for fishermen. It lies from

E. lon.  $78^{\circ}$  to  $82^{\circ}$ , and from N. lat.  $6^{\circ}$  to  $10^{\circ}$ .

The conquest of this island was the first attempt of Albuquerque the celebrated Portuguese admiral. He found it well peopled, and inhabited by two different nations, the Bedas inhabiting the northern, and the Cinglasses who dwelt in the southern, parts. The former were very barbarous, but the latter a good deal more polished. Besides the advantages already mentioned, which these nations derived from their mines of precious stones, they carried on the greatest pearl-fishery in the east. These nations the Portuguese conquered, and tyrannized over in such a manner, that they assisted the Dutch in expelling them from the island; and by their united efforts this was accomplished in 1658, after a bloody and obstinate war. All the Portuguese settlements fell into the hands of the Dutch East-India company, who till now kept possession of them, excepting a small district on the eastern coast without any port, from whence the sovereign of the country had his salt. These settlements formed a regular track, extending from two to twelve leagues into the inland parts of the island. The company have appropriated all the productions of the island. The several articles of trade are, 1. Amethysts, sapphires, topazes, and rubies; the last are very small, and very indifferent. The Moors who come from the coast of Coromandel buy them, paying a moderate tax: and, when they are cut, sell them at a low price in the different countries of India. 2. Pepper, which is bought for about 4d. per pound; coffee, for which they only pay 2d. and cardamom, which has no fixed price. These articles are all of an inferior quality, and through the indolence of the inhabitants will never turn to any account. 3. An hundred bales of handkerchiefs, pagnes, and gingham, of a fine red colour, which are fabricated by the Malabars at Jafranapatan. 4. A small quantity of ivory, and about fifty elephants, which are carried to the coast of Coromandel. 5. Areca, which sells on the spot at 1l. 13s. to the merchants of Bengal, Coromandel, and

and the Maldives; who give in return rice, coarse linen, and cowries.

6. The pearl-fishery, which was formerly of great consequence, but is now so much exhausted, as not to bring in more than 8,750*l.* per annum.

7. After all, the great object of this trade is cinnamon. The annual expences of the colony may amount to about 96,250*l.* their revenues and small branches of commerce produce only about 87,500*l.*—This deficiency must be supplied out of the profits arising from the cinnamon trade; and they are obliged to provide for the expences of the wars in which they are frequently engaged with the king of Candy, who is at present the sole sovereign of the island. These have been very detrimental to the interests of the Hollanders; for which reason they endeavoured to engage the good will of this monarch by shewing him all imaginable civilities. The harmony, however, has been often interrupted. In a bloody war which terminated on the 14th of February, 1766, the Ceylonefe monarch was driven from his capital, so that they Dutch made a very advantageous treaty. Their sovereignty was acknowledged over all that part of the country they possessed before the troubles broke out; and that part of the coasts held by the natives was ceded to them. They were allowed to gather cinnamon in all the plains; and the court was to sell them the best sort, which is produced in the mountains, at the rate of 1*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.* for 18*lb.* The government engaged to have no connection with any foreign power; and even to deliver up any Europeans who might happen to stray into the island. In return for so many concessions, the king was to receive annually the value of the produce of the ceded coasts; and from thence his subjects were to be furnished gratis with as much salt as they had occasion for. The Ceylonefe are in the most miserable situation: they are in a state of total inactivity; live in huts without any furniture, and subsist upon fruits; those who are the most affluent have no other covering than a piece of coarse linen wrapped not very carefully about the waist.

During the last war, Sir Edward Hughes, well knowing the great convenience of this harbour for his naval operations, had stationed a 64-gun ship to block it up ever since the siege of Negapatnam, and he came before it with the whole of his squadron in December 1781.

Upon the 5th of January 1782, the admiral landed Lieutenant Orr, with his company of marine grenadiers, who, on the same night, gallantly stormed Fort Trincomale. Sir Edward having reinforced the marines with some companies of seamen, under Captain John Gell of the royal navy, who of course took the command, ordered them next to proceed against Fort Ossenburgh, which was immediately summoned to strike the Dutch flag to the English. This was refused, and the troops were ordered to make an assault on the morning of the 11th. The storming party accordingly, composed of 450 seamen and marines, supported by the rest of the detachment, made a movement at day-light towards the fort. The advanced guard, getting in unperceived at the embrasures of the lower fort, was immediately followed by the whole storming party, who soon drove the enemy from their works, and possessed themselves of the fort. The loss on either side was small; ours amounting to no more than four officers, with about sixty marines and seamen killed and wounded.

In 1782, two of the best sailing ships of Sir Edward Hughes's fleet were dispatched from Madras with 200 men from the 42d and 78th regiments, commanded by Capt. Hay Macduel, of the former, to reinforce Trincomale. This detachment arrived safely at Ceylon; and, upon Capt. Macduel's taking upon him the command, he found the two forts, but particularly the lower one, in so weak a state of defence, that the labour of some months was requisite to render them in any degree tenable.

Soon after Captain Macduel had taken upon him the command, he found himself besieged by the active Suffrein, who had secretly sailed from Cuddalore to Bartocolo, where he was joined, on the 24th of August, by



by two line-of-battle ships and a formidable body of troops, with which force he quickly laid siege to Trincomale. Capt. Macduel, thus attacked, made as good a stand as his defenceless situation would admit of, but was forced to capitulate on the 30th of the same month; by which event, the most convenient and essential harbour in India was lost to the British crown.

This island was restored to the Dutch at the peace of 1783.

That the capture of Trincomale brings more solid advantages to this country than has been produced by any other success during the war, we hesitate not to assert. The late expedition against this place was much retarded from the circumstance of Moorish vessels being impressed, in the hurry, whose rate of sailing never exceeds three or four knots an hour. Nor was this the only ill consequence: in turning into Back or North Bay, on the 2d of August, the *Diomedé*,

of 44 guns, Capt. Smith, when towing in a snow transport, struck on a rock. By great exertions of the troops she was kept above water long enough to save the crew and part of the stores, but foundered in a few hours after the accident. In so small a squadron, the loss of a ship of her size was materially felt. The naval force employed in co-operating with the besiegers, consisted of the *Suffolk*, of 74, Commodore Rainier; *Centurion*, of 50; *Heroine*, of 32; *John* packet, of 10; *Catherine*, (late *Princess Royal*;) *Gloucester* tender, and two Indiamen.

The sally at four of the morning, of the 25th, was effected by a small party of desperate Malays, armed with spears and daggers only. They rushed into the battery from the right, spiked three guns as they ran along; killed four men, wounded two officers and several men. From the number lying asleep, after a hard day's work, it is wonderful more mischief was not done.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

LADY HARRIET ACHLAND.

LADY HARRIET accompanied her husband Colonel Achland to Canada, in the beginning of the year 1776. In the course of that campaign under Sir Guy Carleton, she attached herself to the army, and traversed a vast space of country during its progress, through all the different extremities of wet, cold, and heat, and under such circumstances of difficulty and distress, that would exhibit, if properly detailed, an interesting picture of the spirit, the enterprise, and intrepidity, of ancient romance, realized and regulated upon the chaste and sober principles of rational love and connubial duty.

In the opening of the campaign of 1777, when General Burgoyne took the command of the expedition from Canada to Albany, Lady Harriet again prepared to follow the fortunes of her husband. The first object of this expedition was to reduce the strong garrison of Ticonderago; and, as a severe action was expected to take place, she was restrained from offer-

ing herself to a share of the fatigue and hazard likely to ensue, by the positive injunctions of the colonel. It happened, however, that Ticonderago was abandoned by the Americans, after very little resistance, who retreated towards Castletown. They were pursued with great spirit, and overtaken by the British; when a severe and obstinate conflict took place, in which Colonel Achland was badly wounded. Lady Harriet, who had been left with other ladies at Crown-Point, on hearing the news fell into the utmost anxiety and perturbation of mind, at having been prevailed upon to stay behind, when perhaps the life of her husband was suspended on a silken thread, and his recovery depending on the doubtful chance of being properly nursed and carefully attended.

In this state of anxious alarm, no arguments could console, or dangers restrain, her. She took the desperate resolution of committing herself to the mercy of the waves, in an open boat;

boat and in tempestuous weather, attended by four seamen, who, prevailed on by the offer of a great reward, took her across the Lake Champlain, at the utmost peril of their lives, to join the colonel, whom she found upon his sick bed, and in want of all those tender offices so critical a situation requires, and which, when administered by the hand of the woman we love, seldom fail of producing the happiest effects both on the body and mind.

As soon as Colonel Achland recovered, Lady Harriet would no longer be persuaded from following his fortunes through the campaign; and at Fort Edward, or at the next camp, she purchased a two-wheel tumbril for her carriage, constructed by some of the artificers of the artillery, something similar to what the post-boys drive with the mail upon the cross-country roads in this kingdom. Colonel Achland commanded the British grenadiers, attached to that part of the army under General Fraser, which consisted of the light infantry, composed of chosen men from all the regiments, and formed the advanced corps; and were consequently always employed in harassing the rear, and pushing forward upon the enemy. Their situations were often so alert, that neither officers nor men were suffered to sleep out of their clothes. In one of these situations, a tent, in which the colonel and Lady Harriet were asleep, suddenly took fire. An orderly serjeant of grenadiers, with great hazard of suffocation, dragged out the first person he caught hold of. It proved to be the colonel. It happened in the same instant that Lady Achland, unknowing what she did, and perhaps not perfectly awake, providentially made her escape, by creeping out under the back part of the tent. The first object she saw, upon the recovery of her senses, was the colonel, on the other side; but in the same instant plunging into the fire again, in search of her. The serjeant again saved his officer; but not till he was very severely burned in his face, and in different parts of his body. Every thing they had with them in the tent was consumed.

This accident happened a little before General Burgoyne's army passed the Hudson's river. It neither altered the resolution nor the cheerfulness of Lady Harriet; and she continued her progress, a regular partaker of all the fatigues of the advanced corps, surrounded with peril, and an eye-witness to every scene of desolation and distress. The next call upon her fortitude was of a different nature, and infinitely more trying, as of longer suspense. On the march of the troops to attack the American army, on the 19th of September, 1777, the grenadiers, which Colonel Achland led into action, being liable to engage at every step, he had previously directed his lady to follow the route of the artillery and baggage, which was not exposed. At the time the action began, she found herself near a small uninhabited hut, where she alighted. When it was found the battle was becoming general and bloody, the surgeons of the hospital took possession of the same place, as the most convenient for the first care of the wounded. Few actions have been characterized by more obstinacy in attack or defence, than that which now took place. The British bayonet was repeatedly tried ineffectually. Eleven hundred British soldiers, foiled in these trials, bore incessant fire from a succession of fresh troops in superior numbers, for upwards of four hours; and, after a loss of above a third of their number, forced the enemy at last. Of a detachment of a captain and forty-eight artillery-men, thirty-six were killed or wounded; yet, in the dusk of the evening, the enemy gave way, and retired in all directions. The tribute of praise due to such troops, opposed to treble their number, will never be withheld by a generous nation; and, after the obstinate conflicts this army experienced with the Americans, let not that people, now prejudice is done away, be again stigmatized with cowardice. It were inconsistent, as well as absurd, to suppose that a people, who are the counterpart of ourselves, should not inherit similar prowess and courage.

During the whole of this arduous engagement was Lady Harriet in hearing,



ing, as well as within reach, of one incessant fire of cannon and musketry, and under the continual dread, from the post her husband filled at the head of the grenadiers, that he would be the next brought in, maimed and breathless; since he commanded in the most exposed part of the action. She had three female companions, the Baroness of Reidesfel, and the wives of two British officers, Major Harnage, and Lieutenant Reynell; but in the event their presence served for but little comfort. Major Harnage was soon brought to the surgeons desperately wounded; and a little after came intelligence that Lieutenant Reynell was shot dead on the spot. Imagination will want no helps to form a competent idea of the distressing scene to which these amiable women were reduced.

From the date of that action, to the 7th of October following, Lady Harriet, with her usual serenity, stood prepared for new trials! and it was her lot that their severity increased with their number. The two armies were so near together, that not a night passed without firing; and sometimes concerted attacks were made upon the advanced corps of the British, in which Colonel Achland was always posted. On the 7th of October the two armies formally engaged, and a severe conflict ensued; during the whole of which Lady Harriet was exposed to the most imminent danger, and finally received the shock of her individual misfortune, mixed with the intelligence of the general calamity,—the troops were defeated—Sir Francis Clarke was killed—General Fraser expiring—and Colonel Achland desperately wounded, and taken prisoner!

The whole of the next day was a continuation of the same inauspicious beginning. Lady Harriet and her companions still partook of the common anxiety; not a tent nor a shed being left standing, except what belonged to the surgeons, their refuge was among the wounded and the dying. An awful scene, however, was yet to come; as if enough had not occurred to touch their sensibility, or excite their feelings. Early in the morning of the 8th, General Fraser

breathed his last; and, with the most perfect resignation and composure, requested that he might be carried, by the soldiers of his own corps, to the great redoubt where he received his wound, and there buried. About sun-set this solemn office was put in execution; and the corpse was carried up the hill, under circumstances scarcely to be described. To arrive at the great redoubt, the procession was obliged to pass within view of the greatest part of both armies. The incessant cannonade during the solemnity—the steady attitude and unaltered voice with which the chaplain officiated, though frequently covered with dirt, which the falling of the cannon balls threw upon all sides of him and over his book—the mute but expressive mixture of sensibility and indignation upon every countenance at so unfeeling a procedure, are objects that will remain to the last of life upon the minds of every one who was present. The growing duskiness added to the awful scenery of the evening; and the whole marked a character of that interesting conjuncture, that would make one of the finest subjects, for the pencil of a master, that the field of battle ever exhibited.

This solemnity was no sooner performed, than Lady Harriet made application to General Burgoyne, entreating him to afford her such assistance as would enable her to pass to the camp of the enemy, in order to request permission of General Gates to attend her wounded husband. General Burgoyne, though sensible that patience and fortitude, in a supreme degree, are sometimes found, as well as every other virtue, in the most delicate of the sex, was nevertheless astonished at the proposal. After so long an agitation of the spirits, exhausted not only for want of rest, but absolutely for want of food, drenched in rains for several days together, that a woman should be capable of such an undertaking as delivering herself to the enemy, probably in the night, and uncertain of what hands she might first fall into, appeared an effort above human nature. The assistance she required was however readily afforded her by the general, as far as circumstances

stances would permit. She was furnished with an open boat, a little rum, and dirty water; and General Burgoyne addressed a few lines to General Gates, recommending her to his protection.

Mr. Brudenell, the chaplain in the artillery, who officiated so signally at General Fraser's funeral, readily undertook to accompany her; and with one female servant, and the colonel's valet de chambre, she rowed down the river to meet the enemy. But her distresses were not yet to end. The night was far advanced before she reached the enemy's out-posts, and the sentinel was not only with difficulty restrained from firing upon them, but he would not let them pass, nor even come on shore. In vain Mr. Brudenell offered the flag of truce, and represented the state of this extraordinary passenger. The guard, apprehensive of treachery, and punctilious to their orders, insisted on their remaining in the boat, on the spot where they then were, until the morning; and, if the boat attempted to stir from the place, he would fire into it. Lady Achland's anxiety and sufferings were thus protracted thro' seven long hours of dark-

ness and cold; and her reflections upon this first reception could give her no very flattering ideas of the treatment she was afterwards to expect. But it is a tribute due to justice, at the close of this adventure, to say, that she was received and accommodated by General Gates, with all the humanity and respect that her rank, her merits, and her misfortunes, deserved; and, she was escorted to her husband, through the American army, with a generosity and respectful attention, at least equal to the philanthropy and humanity of Alexander to his illustrious captives of the Persian empire.

Let such as are affected by these circumstances of alarm, hardship, and danger, recollect that the subject of them was a woman—of the most tender and delicate frame—of the gentlest manners—habituated to all the soft elegances, and refined enjoyments, that attend high birth, and fortune; and far advanced in a state in which the tender cares, always due to the sex, become indispensibly necessary. Her mind rose superior to all the difficulties that surrounded her, and seemed alone formed for such trials!

## AFFECTING INCIDENTS IN THE REVOLUTIONARY PRISONS OF FRANCE.

By Miss WILLIAMS.

**W**HILE Miss Williams was confined in the prison of the Luxembourg in Paris, (in consequence of the decree ordering all the English to be arrested,) she observed, that among the crowd that filled the public room were fine gentlemen and ladies, who had held the highest rank at court, some flirting together, others making appointments for card-parties or music in their own apartments in the evening, and others relating to us in pathetic language all they had suffered, and all they had lost, by the revolution. It was impossible not to sympathize in the distresses of some, or avoid wondering at the folly of others, in whom the strong sense of danger could not

overcome the feelings of vanity; and who although the tremendous decree had just gone forth, making "terror the order of the day," and knowing that the fatal pre-eminence of rank was the surest passport to the guillotine, could not resist using the proscribed nomenclature of Madame la Duchesse, Monsieur le Comte, &c. which seemed to issue from their lips like natural melodies to which the ear has long been accustomed, and which the voice involuntarily repeats. There were, however, among the captive nobility, many persons who had too much good sense not to observe a different conduct, who had proved themselves real friends to liberty, had made im-  
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portant sacrifices in its cause, and who had been led to prison by revolutionary committees on pretences the most trivial, and sometimes from mistakes the most ludicrous. Such was the fate of the former Count and Countess of —, who had distinguished themselves from the beginning of the revolution by the ardour of their patriotism and the largeness of their civic donations. They had hitherto lived undisturbed in their splendid hotel, where they might probably have continued to live a little longer, had not the countess, in an evil hour, sent down to her chateau a fine marble hearth, which by some accident was broken on the way. The steward sent a letter, in which, among other things, he mentioned that the “foyer must be repaired at Paris.” [*Foyer* is the French name for hearth, and also for the central point of a system.] The letter was intercepted and read by the revolutionary committee. They swore, they raged, at the dark designs of aristocracy:—“Here,” said they, “is a daring plot indeed! a *foyer* of counter-revolution, and to be repaired at Paris! We must instantly seize the authors and the accomplices.” In vain the countess related the story of the hearth, and asserted that no conspiracy lurked beneath the marble; both herself and her husband were conducted to the *maison d’arret* of their section, from which we saw them arrive at the Luxembourg with about sixty other persons at the hour of midnight, after having been led through the streets in procession by the light of an immense number of flambeaux, and guarded by a whole battalion.

Amid many an eloquent tale of chateaux levelled with the ground, and palaces where, to borrow an image of desolation from Ossian, “the fox might be seen looking out at the window,” we sometimes heard the complaints of simple sorrow unallied to greatness; but, like the notes of the starling, “so true in time to nature were they chanted,” that they seized irresistibly on the heart. Of this kind was a scene which passed sometimes between a poor English

woman and her dog, which she had brought to keep her company in her captivity. She had been house-keeper in a French family, and, some months before she was imprisoned, had sent her daughter, who was her only child, to her friends in England. The poor woman often exclaimed, while her face was bathed in tears, “Oh, Charlotte, Charlotte, I shall never see you again!” whenever the dog heard the name of Charlotte, he began to howl in so melancholy a note, that it was impossible not to sympathize in his lamentation.

There was sometimes room for deep meditation on the strange caprice and vicissitudes of fortune. We found the ex-minister Amelot a prisoner in the Luxembourg; he, who during his administration had distributed *lettres de cachet* with so much liberality. Tyranny had now changed its instruments, and he was become himself the victim of despotism with new insignia: the blue ribband had given place to the red cap, and “*de par le roi*” was transformed into “*par mesure de sûreté générale*.” By his order La Tude, whose history is so well-known, had been confined thirty years in the Bastille. He was now enjoying the sweets of liberty; and, before the prison-doors were shut against strangers, came frequently to visit some of his friends in the very room where the minister was imprisoned.

Amelot, in a comfortable apartment and surrounded by society, did not bear his confinement with the same firmness as La Tude had borne the solitude of his dungeon, cheered only by the plaintive sounds of his flute of reeds. He was in a short time bereft of his reason; and, among the wanderings of his imagination, used to address letters to all the kings of Europe and all the emigrant princes, inviting them to sumptuous repasts, to which he sometimes proposed admitting the national convention, to shew that he was above bearing malice.

Among the prisoners whom Miss Williams found in the Luxembourg, were two persons, in whose society she and her friends had passed some  
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of the most agreeable hours of their residence in France. These were Sillery and La Source, both members of the convention, and both on the point of appearing before that sanguinary tribunal whence, after the most shocking mockery of justice, they were inhumanly dragged to the scaffold. Sillery, on account of his infirmities, had with much difficulty obtained permission for his servant to be admitted during the day, together with an old female friend, who, on the plea of his illness, had implored leave to attend him as his nurse, with that eloquence which belongs to affliction, and which sometimes even the most hardened hearts are unable to resist. While men assume over our sex so many claims to superiority, let them at least bestow on us the palm of constancy, and allow that in the fidelity of our attachments we have the right of pre-eminence. Those prisons from which men shrunk back with terror, and where they often left their friends abandoned lest they should be involved in their fate—women, in whom the force of sensibility overcame the fears of female weakness, demanded and sometimes obtained permission to visit, in defiance of all the dangers that surrounded their gloomy walls. Sillery's friend and his servant being allowed to go in and out of his apartment, the door was not kept constantly locked, although he and La Source were closely confined, and not permitted to have any communication with the other prisoners.

The second night of our abode in the Luxembourg, when the prisoners had retired to their respective chambers, and the keeper had locked the outer door which enclosed our three apartments, La Source entered our room. Oh! how different was this interview from those meetings of social enjoyment that were embellished by the charms of his conversation, always distinguished by a flow of eloquence, and animated by that enthusiastic fervour which peculiarly belonged to his character! La Source was a native of Languedoc, and united with very superior talents, that vivid warmth of imagination for

which the southern provinces of France have been renowned since the period when, awakened by the genial influence of those luxuriant regions, the song of the Trabadoirs burst from the gloom of gothic barbarism. Liberty in the soul of La Source was less a principle than a passion, for his bosom beat high with philanthropy; and in his former situation as a Protestant minister he had felt in a peculiar manner the oppression of the ancient system. His sensibility was acute, and his detestation of the crimes by which the revolution had been sullied, was in proportion to his devoted attachment to its cause. La Source was polite and amiable in his manners: he had a taste for music, and a powerful voice; and sung, as he conversed, with all the energy of feeling. After the day had passed in the fatigue of public debates, he was glad to lay aside the tumult of politics in the evening, for the conversation of some literary men whom he met occasionally at our tea-table. Ah! how little did we then foresee the horrors of that period when we should meet him in the gloom of a prison, a proscribed victim, with whom this melancholy interview was beset with danger!

We were obliged to converse in whispers, while we kept watch successively at the outer door, that if any step approached he might instantly fly to his chamber. He had much to ask, having been three months a close prisoner, and knowing little of what was passing in the world; and, though he seemed to forget all the horrors of his situation in the consolation he derived from these moments of confidential conversation, yet he frequently lamented, that this last gleam of pleasure which was shed over his existence was purchased at the price of our captivity. In the solitude of his prison, no voice of friendship, no accents of pity, had reached his ear; and, after our arrival, he used through the lonely day to count the hours till the prison-gates were closed, till all was still within its walls, and no sound was heard without, except at intervals the hoarse cry of the sentinels, when he hastened



ed to our apartment. The discovery of these visits would indeed have exposed us to the most fatal consequences; but our sympathy prevailed over our fears; nor could we, whatever might be the event, refuse our devoted friend this last melancholy satisfaction. La Source at his second visit was accompanied by Sillery, the husband of Madame de Sillery, whose writings are so well known in England. [Better known however as Madame de Genlis, author of *Adelaide and Theodore*, and other *Treatises on Education*.] Sillery was about sixty years of age; and lived freely, like most men of his former rank in France; and from this dissipated life had more the appearance of age than belonged to his years. His manners retained the elegance, by which that class was distinguished which Mr. Burke has denominated "the Corinthian capital of polished society." Sillery had a fine taste for drawing, and during his confinement displayed the powers of his pencil by tracing beautiful landscapes. He also amused himself by reading history; and, possessing considerable talents for literature, had recorded with a rich warmth of colouring the events of the revolution, in which he had been a distinguished actor, and of which he had treasured up details precious for history. With keen regret he told me that he had committed several volumes of manuscript to the flames, a sad sacrifice to the Omars of the day.

The mind of Sillery was somewhat less fortified against his approaching fate than that of La Source. The old man often turned back on the past and wept, and sometimes enquired, with an anxious look, if we believed there was any chance of his deliverance. Alas! I have no words to paint the sensations of those moments! To know that the days of our fellow-captives were numbered—that they were doomed to perish—that the bloody tribunal before which they were going to appear was but the path-way to the scaffold—to have the painful task of stifling our feelings, while we endeavoured to soothe the weakness of humanity

by hopes which we knew were fallacious—was a species of misery almost insupportable. There were moments indeed, when the task became too painful to be endured. There were moments when, shocked by some new incident of terror, this cruel restraint gave way to uncontrollable emotion; when the tears, the sobbings, of convulsive anguish, would no longer be suppressed, and our unfortunate friends were obliged to give instead of receiving consolation.

They had in their calamity that support which is of all others the most effectual under misfortune. Religion was in La Source a habit of the mind. Impressed with the most sublime ideas of the Supreme Being, although the ways of heaven never appeared more dark and intricate than in this triumph of guilt over innocence, he reposed with unbounded confidence in that Providence in whose hand are the issues of life and death. Sillery, who had a feeling heart, found devotion the most soothing refuge of affliction. He and La Source composed together a little hymn adapted to a sweet solemn air, which they called their evening service. Every night before we parted they sung this simple dirge in a low tone to prevent their being heard in the other apartments, which made it seem more plaintive. Those mournful sounds, the knell of my departed friends, yet thrill upon my heart!

La Source often spoke of his wife with tender regret. He had been married only a week, when he was chosen a member of the legislative assembly, and was obliged to hasten to Paris, while his wife remained in Languedoc to take care of an aged mother. When the legislative assembly was dissolved, La Source was immediately elected a member of the national convention, and could find no interval in which to visit his native spot, or his wife, whom he saw no more. In his meditations on the chain of political events, he mentioned one little incident which seemed to hang on his mind with a sort of superstitious feeling. A few days after

after the 10th of August, he dined in the Fauxbourg of St. Antoine with several members of the legislative assembly, who were the most distinguished for their talents and patriotism. They were exulting in the birth of the new republic, and the glorious part they were to act as its founders, when a citizen of the Fauxbourg, who had been invited to partake of the repast, observed, that he feared a different destiny awaited them: "As you have been the founders of the republic," said he, "you will also be its victims. In a short time you will be obliged to impose restraints and duties on the people, to whom your enemies and theirs will represent you as having overthrown regal power only to establish your own. You will be accused of aristocracy; and I foresee," he added with much perturbation, "that you will all perish on the scaffold." The company smiled at his singular prediction: but during the ensuing winter, when the storm was gathering over the political horizon, La Source recalled the prophecy, and sometimes reminded Vergniaud of the man of the Fauxbourg St. Antoine. Vergniaud had little heeded the augur; but a few days previous to the 31st of May, when the convention was for the first time besieged, La Source said again to Vergniaud, "Well, what think you of the prophet of the Fauxbourg?" "The prophet of the Fauxbourg," answered Vergniaud, "was in the right."

When Charlotte de Cordey, who assassinated the infamous Marat, was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, she acknowledged the deed, and justified it by asserting that it was a duty she owed to her country and mankind to rid the world of a monster whose sanguinary doctrines were framed to involve the country in anarchy and civil war, and asserted her right to put Marat to death as a convict already condemned by the public opinion. She trusted that her example would inspire the people with that energy which had been at all times the distinguished characteristic of republicans; and which she defined to be that devotedness to our

country which renders life of little comparative estimation.

Her deportment during the trial was modest and dignified. It is difficult to conceive the kind of heroism which she displayed in the way to execution. She excited in this interesting situation a very strong and singular passion in a young man of the name of Adam Lux, a commissary from Mayence. He accidentally crossed the street as she was passing on her way to execution, and became instantly enamoured, not of her only, but, what was more extraordinary, of the guillotine. He published a few days after a pamphlet, in which he proposed raising a statue to her honour, and inscribing on the pedestal "Greater than Brutus," and invoked her shade wandering through Elysium with those glorious personages who had devoted themselves for their country. He was sent to the prison of La Force, where a friend of mine often saw him, and where he talked of nothing to him but of Charlotte Cordey and the guillotine; which, since she had perished, appeared to him transformed into an altar, on which he would consider it as a privilege to be sacrificed, and was only solicitous to receive the stroke of death from the identical instrument by which she had suffered. A few weeks after his imprisonment he was executed as a counter-revolutionist.

She ascended the scaffold with undaunted firmness, and, knowing that she had only to die, was resolved to die with dignity. She had learned from her jailor the mode of punishment, but was not instructed in the detail; and, when the executioner attempted to tie her feet to the plank, she resisted, from an apprehension that he had been ordered to insult her; but on his explaining himself she submitted with a smile. When he took off her handkerchief, the moment before she bent under the fatal stroke, she blushed deeply; and her head, which was held up to the multitude the moment after, exhibited this last impression of offended modesty.

*(To be concluded in our next.)*

SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## A WINTER PIECE.

"How cold it is!"

NOW the blustering boreas blows,  
See the waters round are froze:  
The trees, that skirt the dreary plain,  
All day a murmuring cry maintain;  
The trembling forest hears their moan,  
And sadly mingles groan with groan.  
How dismal all from east to west,  
Heaven defend the poor distressed!  
Such is the tale, on hill and vale:

Each traveller may behold it is;  
While low and high is heard the cry,  
"Bless my heart, how cold it is!"

Now slumbering sloth, who cannot bear  
The question of the searching air,  
Lifts up her unkempt head, and tries,  
But cannot for her bondage rise;  
The while the housewife briskly throws  
Around her wheel, and sweetly shows  
The healthful colour labour brings,  
Which is not in the gift of kings,  
To her long life, devoid of strife,  
And justly too, unfolded is:  
The while dull sloth, to stir is loth,  
And, shuddering, cries, "How cold  
it is!"

Thus lisps Sir Fopling, tender weed,  
All shivering like a shaken reed:  
"How keen the air assaults my back!  
John, place some list upon that crack;  
Go, sand-bag all the fathes round,  
And see there's not a crevice found:—  
Ah! bless me, now I feel a breath,  
Good lack, 'tis like the chill of death!"  
Indulgence pale tells this sad tale,  
Till he in furs enfolded is:  
Yet still complains, for all his pains,  
"Bless my heart, how cold it is!"

Now, the poor newsman from the town,  
Explores his path along the down,  
His frozen fingers sadly blows;  
And still it fleets, and still it snows.  
Till cover'd o'er from head to feet,  
Like penance in her winding sheet:  
"Go take his paper, Richard, go,  
And give a dram to make him glow."  
This was thy cry, Humanity,  
More precious far than gold it is,  
Such gifts to deal, when newsmen feel,  
All clad in snow, how cold it is!

Humanity! delightful tale!  
While we feel the piercing gale,  
May the lord in ermine coat,  
Ope his ear to sorrow's note:  
Where with penury oppress'd,  
A fellow sits, a piteous guest,  
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Full ample let his bounty flow,  
To soothe the bosom chill'd by woe.  
In town or vale, where'er the tale  
Of real grief unfolded is,  
Oh, may he give the means to live  
To those who feel how cold it is!

Perhaps some warrior blind and lam'd,  
Some dauntless tar for Britain maim'd;  
Consider these; for thee they bore  
The loss of limb, and suffer'd more;  
Oh, pass them not! or, if you do,  
I'll sigh to think they fought for you.  
Go, pity all: but, 'bove the rest,  
The soldier, or the tar, distressed.  
Through winter's reign, relieve their pain,  
For, what they've done, sure bold it is;  
Their wants supply, when'er they cry,  
"Bless my soul, how cold it is!"

And now, ye sluggards, sloths, and beaux,  
Who dread the breath that winter blows,  
Pursue the conduct of a friend,  
Who never found it yet offend;  
While winter deals his frosts around,  
Go, face the blast, and beat the ground:  
With chearful spirits exercise,  
'Tis hence health's balmy blessings rise.  
On hill and dale, though sharp the gale,  
And freezing you behold it is;  
Your blood shall flow, and gently glow,  
And you'll not mind how cold it is!

## M A D P E G.

From Dibdin's "WILL OF THE WISP."

THE gloomy night stalk'd slow away,  
The twilight spoke the doubtful day,  
When on a rock poor Peg reclin'd,  
Mad as the waves, wild as the wind.  
"Give me my love," she frantic scream'd;  
"I saw his ghost, as by it gleam'd.  
I'll dive, I'll search the briny gloom,  
And snatch him from his coral tomb.  
Ah! let me, fate, his relics save—  
True lovers should find out one grave."

And now the tempest dims the sky—  
How many ways poor sailors die!  
See, see, the stagg'ring vessel splits;  
She's lost, like Peg's poor shipwreck'd  
wits.

No, 'twas in battle that he dy'd—  
Would no pow'r turn the ball aside!  
I saw it as it rent his heart;  
I heard him cry, "And must we part?  
For Peggy, ah! these relics save—  
True lovers should find out one grave."

Where on the deep the cavern yawn'd,  
Now as the purple morning dawn'd,

The surge in breakers loud and hoarse  
 Her love cast up, a lifeless corse.  
 She raves, she screams, her hands she  
   wrings :  
 The shock returning reason brings.  
 Reason returns, alas! too late—  
 She clasps her love, and yields to fate.  
 Their mourning friends their relics save—  
 And these true lovers find one grave.

## ODE TO A HANDSOME WIDOW.

BY PETER PINDAR, ESQ.

SEE yonder cloud, that mopes with  
 mournful shade,  
 Black! black, as though it never would  
   be bright!  
 Sol, like a bridegroom comes, a jovial  
   blade,  
 Clasps her with warmth, and lo, her  
   darkness, light!  
 The drefs of cloud soon alters! for, behold,  
 Her gloomy fables change to pink and  
   gold!  
 Daughter of sorrow, thus perchance 'twill  
   be,  
 If I mistake not nature, soon with thee.  
 Pale as the pale rain-loaded lily's look,  
 And languid as the willow o'er the brook,  
   Exalt once more that drooping form to  
   joy;  
 Too long the lute of woe, with dying  
   sound,  
 And melting lullaby, thine eye hath  
   drown'd;  
 The trump of rapture should his voice  
   employ;  
 The sprightly fiddle rouse his sister dance  
 And bid thy cold heart glow with love's  
   romance.  
 Thy lifted eyes too eloquently mourn,  
   Deep swimming in the silent fount of  
   tears!  
 And then thy voice so musically lorn,  
   Accusing fate's too cruel, cruel, sheers,  
 Wakes all the soft emotions of my heart,  
 That sympathizing fain would mirth im-  
   part.  
 But grief for spouses lasts not ladies long;  
 Yet very poignant!—yes, though short,  
   'tis strong,  
 When first the best of husbands breathes  
   his last;  
 And if his all be left them!—what a storm  
 Of sighs and tears their beauty to deform!  
 Grief seems as ever he would ride the  
   blast.  
 Yet soon, 'tis said, the winds of woe are  
   still;  
 And tears, from torrents, sink a prattling  
   rill.

Think what a pair of sparkling eyes are  
   thine,  
 And do not drown their cupids in the  
   brine;  
 And think too on thy pretty dimpled  
   cheek—  
 Think of thy flaxen hair, whose beauties  
   flow  
 In broad luxuriance o'er thy breast of  
   snow;  
 And think too of that soft and polish'd  
   neck.

Think of thy lips, that kisses can impart,  
 So ready from their ruby beds to start!  
 Thus speak those lips, "We will be kifs'd  
   again."  
 And in the same sweet fascinating strain,  
 Thy polish'd bosom says, "I will be  
   prests'd;"  
 And then thy cheek, the loveliest of our  
   isle,  
 Exclaims, "I will resume the cheerful  
   smile,  
 My bloom shall make some future lover  
   blest."

O listen to thy locks from fashion hurl'd—  
 "We will look Christian-like—we will be  
   curl'd;  
 We will not imitate a cow's strait tail:"  
 And then thy all-subduing taper waist,  
 So full of rich desires, and then so chaste,  
 While others are so marvellously frail—  
 "I will be clasp'd by some smart swain, I  
   say,  
 Not like a cabbage-stalk be flung away."

Thy heart too speaks! "Though now,  
   alas! forlorn,  
 There seems no reason for eternal sigh-  
   ing;  
 Owl-like, a little let me mope and  
   mourn,  
 But not be ever swelling, groaning, dy-  
   ing."  
 Hark! from thy hand, which thou dost  
   wretched wring—  
 "Give me" (a finger cries) "another  
   ring."  
 Oh! canst thou hear it on such wishes  
   dwell,  
 And not indulge it with the bagatelle!  
 Daughter of grief, then hamper not thy  
   charms,  
 Who, really grown rebellious, pant for  
   arms;  
 Give way then to the roving muti-  
   neers—  
 And shouldst thou say, "Lord! who will  
   take 'em in?"  
 Trust me, I'll entertain 'em, every skin—  
 My bosom's open to the pretty dears.

FOREIGN



## FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

HORSE GUARDS, Jan. 6, 1796.

**D**ISPATCHES from Colonel Stuart, of which the following are extracts, have been this day received by the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State:

*Camp before Trincomale, in the Island of Ceylon, August 17, 1795.*

In obedience to orders and instructions I received from the government of Fort St. George, and Colonel Braithwaite, commanding the king's and company's forces on the coast of Coromandel, I have the honour to acquaint you for his majesty's information, by the Royal Admiral under dispatch for Europe, that the armament, with the command of which I am entrusted, embarked the 30th ult. at Fort St. George on-board his majesty's ships of war upon that station, and the transports taken up for the purpose of conveying it to this place.

The fleet arrived in Back Bay, to the northward of the forts of Trincomale and Oostenburgh, on the 1st instant; and, as Commodore Rainier and I were particularly anxious that the commandant of those forts should not misapprehend the object of the armament under our command, every precaution was taken to prevent any misapprehension upon that head, by explaining to him the nature of it; and two days were spent in communications between the fort and fleet for that purpose.

As the commandant, however, did not think proper to accede to the requisitions made, in the name of the king, by the commodore and me, and refused obeying the commands of his superior, Mr. Van Angelbeck, the governor of Columbo, to deliver up the port of Oostenburgh to a detachment of his majesty's troops, on account of an informality in the order, the commodore agreeing with me in the propriety of landing the troops, they were disembarked on the 3d, about four miles to the northward of the fort of Trincomale, without opposition; and, if the commandant perseveres in his resolution to refuse us admittance as friends, I hope to have it in my power to begin our approaches against the fort of Trincomale to-morrow night.

AUGUST 30. We broke ground on the evening of the 18th, opened the batteries on the 23d, and, before twelve o'clock on

Wednesday the 26th, completed a practicable breach. Commodore Rainier and I then thought proper to summon the garrison to surrender, while preparations were making for the assault. Terms were demanded which could not be allowed, and such as we thought consistent were transmitted in return: these not being accepted within a limited time, our fire re-commenced, and in a few minutes the white flag was displayed on the ramparts, the conditions we had offered were accepted, signed, and transmitted to camp, with two captains of the garrison as hostages for their performance.

This evening the prisoners taken here will embark for Madras. I shall immediately take up a convenient position, and begin the necessary preparations for the attack of Fort Oostenburgh, the commandant of that garrison having refused to surrender when summoned on the 17th instant: and I have reason to hope that that fort also will be very soon in our possession.

J. STUART.

*Articles of Capitulation for the Fort of Trincomale.*

Art. I. The garrison shall march out to-morrow at four in the afternoon by the breach, with the honours of war, drums beating, colours flying: the troops will lay down their arms on the glacis. All the officers, whether Europeans or Indians, shall keep their swords. The creffles of the Malays shall be packed up in a chest to be delivered to them in case they should be sent back to their own country, as being weapons belonging to them, which they never will consent to part with.—A. The garrison shall march out at sun-set this evening in the manner demanded; but the redoubt, the cavalier on the flank of the breach, and the Zeeberg bastion, must be immediately given up to the British troops. The creffles of the Malays shall be disposed of in the manner requested; and the whole of the officers and men shall be considered as prisoners of war.

II. All the ammunition and other effects of the company shall be delivered to the persons named on the part of his Britannic majesty's commanders.—A. Granted.

III. The European officers shall not be sent to Europe, contrary to their own consent.—A. Granted.

IV. The effects as well belonging to the garrison as to individuals shall be preserved for them.—A. Granted.

V. The

V. The civil servants of the company shall be allowed to retire to another part of the island.—A. It is not in the power of the officers commanding the British forces to grant this article.

VI. The sick and wounded shall be properly taken care of.—A. Certainly.

VII. The garrison shall not be subject to reprisals.—A. Granted.

The commandant demands permission to send to the government of the island, by a civil agent of the company, the papers relative to the siege.

Copies of the papers to be submitted to the British commanders.

Done at the fort of Trincomale, 26th August, 1795. (Signed) J. G. FORNBAUER.

Signed, by authority of Commodore Rainier and Colonel Stuart,

P. G. AGNEW, Dep. Adj. Gen.

*State of the Garrison at Trincomale.*

FIT FOR SERVICE.

Total.—1 major, 1 town-major, 1 garrison-writer, 9 captains, 2 captain-lieutenants, 13 lieutenants, 15 ensigns, 1 cadet, 5 quarter-master serjeants, 4 bombardiers, 45 serjeants, 44 corporals, 5 gunners, 1 surgeon, 2 cadets, 24 drummers and fifers, and 506 privates.

SICK AND WOUNDED.

Total.—1 captain, 5 serjeants, 10 corporals, 1 gunner, 1 surgeon, 1 cadet, 1 drummer and fifer, and 69 privates.

*Abstract of the Ordnance taken in the Fort of Trincomale.*

BRASS.—2 twenty pounders, 1 eighteen ditto, 1 twelve ditto, 2 nine ditto, 2 six ditto, 2 four ditto, 7 three ditto, 5 one ditto, 1 swivel, 2 six-inch howitzers, 2 five and a half inch ditto, 2 four and a half inch ditto, 3 twelve and a quarter inch mortars, 1 eleven and three quarter inch ditto, 1 ten and half inch ditto, 1 eight inch ditto, 2 five and half inch ditto, and 5 four inch ditto.—Total: 37 serviceable, and five unserviceable.

IRON.—2 twenty-four pounders, 3 twenty ditto, 22 eighteen ditto, 17 twelve ditto, 14 nine ditto, 3 swivels, and 4 caronades.—Total: 55 serviceable, and 10 unserviceable.

*General Return of Killed and Wounded of the Troops under the Command of Colonel Stuart, during the Siege of Trincomale, August, 1795.*

Total: 1 bombardier, 3 gunners, 3 matrosses, 1 seaman, 1 sepoy, and 6 lascars, killed; 1 major, 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 1 ensign, 4 serjeants, 1 corporal, 2 gunners, 10 matrosses, 13 privates, and 2 seamen, (Europeans,) 1 fyrag, 9 sepoys, and 8 lascars, (natives,) wounded.

*Officers wounded.*

Major Smart, deputy quarter-master general.

Captain Gorry, of the 71st regiment.  
Lieutenant Prescott, of the Madras artillery.

Ensign Benson, of the 72d regiment.

AUGUST 31. After closing my dispatch of yesterday, an officer was sent by the commandant of Fort Oostenburgh, requesting that I would permit an officer to meet him this morning for the purpose of opening a negociation for the surrender of the fort. I accordingly sent Major Agnew, the adjutant-general of the forces under my command, and have the satisfaction to inform you that the garrison this day surrendered themselves prisoners of war, that a detachment of his majesty's troops took possession of the fort, and the British colours were hoisted in it before sun-set. J. STUART.

*Articles of Capitulation for Fort Oostenburgh.*

The commandant of Fort Oostenburgh surrenders the said fort to his Britannic Majesty, on the following conditions:

Art. I. The troops composing the garrison of Fort Oostenburgh surrender themselves prisoners of war: the officers shall keep their swords.—A. Granted.

II. Captain Weermann, and Lieutenant Zelman of the engineer corps, demand permission to remain here, to arrange their own affairs and those of the officers.—A. These officers will be permitted to remain a reasonable time for the arrangement of their affairs.

III. The property of the officers and soldiers shall be secured to them.—A. Granted.

IV. The soldiers shall be prisoners of war, and shall be delivered up for the purpose of being transported from the island. They shall not be forced to serve; and those who shall refuse to enlist shall be transported to Europe at a convenient opportunity.—A. Granted.

V. The Malays shall be well treated, and shall not be forced to serve either as soldiers or sailors.—A. Granted.

VI. The storekeeper, his assistant, and secretary, demand permission to remain here to arrange their affairs.—A. These gentlemen will be allowed a reasonable time for the arrangement of their affairs, but are to be considered as prisoners of war.

VII. All the articles of the capitulation of Trincomale, although not contained in this capitulation, shall be also extended to the garrison of Oostenburgh, as far as they shall apply.—A. Granted.

VIII. At four o'clock this afternoon the garrison shall march out, drums beating, and the troops shall lay down their arms.—A. The garrison will march out at four o'clock this afternoon, in the manner required by this article; but a detach-



detachment of the British army must be put in possession of the Water-pas Gate at two o'clock this afternoon, and proper persons will be appointed by Captain Hoffman to point out the magazines, &c. that guards may be posted for their security.

IX. All the ammunition, magazines, papers, and public property, shall be delivered to a commissioner named on the part of his Britannic majesty.

Fort of Oostenburgh, August 31, 1795.

(Signed) G. HOFFMAN.

Signed, by authority of Commodore Rainier and Colonel Stuart,

P. G. AGNEW, Dep. Adj. Gen.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, Jan. 7, 1796.

Dispatches of which the following are Copies and Extracts, have been received at this Office, from Rear-Admiral Rainier, commanding his Majesty's Ships in the East Indies.

SUFFOLK, Back Bay, Trincomale, August 14, 1795.

On the 1st of August I anchored in Back Bay, with the Centurion, being joined the day before by Captain Gardner, in his majesty's ship Heroine, from Columbo, with Major Agnew, deputy adjutant-general, who had been sent to the governor of that place, the chief of all the settlements on Ceylon, with a letter from Lord Hobart, and instructions for his conduct, under the joint authority of Colonel Braithwaite and myself, to explain to him his majesty's commands, and the purpose of the armament. Major Agnew brought, in return, an order from the Governor of Ceylon to the Commandant of Trincomale, to admit 300 of his majesty's troops to garrison Fort Oostenburgh; to which, when presented to him, he refused obedience, under a pretence of informality in the order. The latter part of this day and the greater part of the following was occupied in receiving and replying to his remonstrances relative thereto; which as they were apparently calculated to evade the great object of the expedition, Colonel Stuart and myself determined on landing the troops, and preparations were making accordingly; but most unfortunately, as his majesty's ship Diomedé, with her tow, were working up against a strong land-wind in the bay, she struck with so much violence on a rock, lying in fifteen fathoms water, and not delineated in our charts, between Pigeon Island and the outer point of this bay, that the water the ship made gained so fast on every exertion of both seamen and soldiers at the pumps, there was barely time to take the men out before she foundered,

without a possibility of saving a single store of any consequence but the boats. The employment of all the boats on this pressing occasion prevented the landing the army till the following morning, when the first detachment of five hundred and thirty Europeans and one hundred and ten natives, and two field-pieces, landed at the White Rocks, within Elizabeth Point, without opposition, and were followed by the remainder of European troops and natives as fast as the boats could convey them. The boats with the first detachment rendezvoused on-board the Heroine, who was placed as near the landing place as she could anchor in safety, and, on the boats pushing off, presented her broadside to cover them: the broadsides of the Suffolk and Centurion would also have done execution, had there been any opposition made. In the course of the next ten days the stores and provisions were landed with all expedition, not without the most vigorous exertions of the officers and seamen, the land-breeze blowing strong all the time, as it still continues, and keeping up the most extraordinary high surf I ever remember to have seen here: the army had then to move them from the landing place to the camp, a distance of three or four miles, over a very heavy sand.

Colonel Stuart is making every effort preparatory to the attack of the lower fort: the Dutch have as yet given no interruption, as if the commandant waited for some further authority.

AUGUST 30. I have the pleasure to acquaint you, for their lordships information, that the lower fort and town of Trincomale surrendered to his majesty's arms the 26th instant, the eighth day from the opening of the trenches, a work the enemy most unaccountably never interrupted. The grand battery of 8 eighteen pounders and two ten-inch mortars, from five to six hundred yards distant from the glacis of the N. W. bastion, was so judiciously planned by Colonel Stuart, and the work so ably executed, as to do amazing execution from its first opening, dismounting, in the course of the attack, almost every gun the enemy could bring to bear upon it.

There were also two batteries erected to the right of the grand battery, one of two twelve pounders, the other of two eight-inch howitzers, that annoyed the enemy much, and diverted their attention from the working parties of the grand battery, which was opened the 23d instant. During the three first days, the enemy kept up a very smart fire from all their works that looked towards our batteries,

batteries, but with little execution, and few casualties. The breach was effected directly over the sea-gate and landing-place of the fort at Back Bay; and when practicable, on the morning of the 26th, a summons was sent by a drum with the conditions of surrender. The return was an inadmissible demand from the commandant on the part of the garrison. However, after some little ceremony he surrendered on the terms offered, with some few explanations.

In the course of the operations of the army, observing Colonel Stuart to be short of men for working-parties, the distance of the camp from the trenches being nearly two miles, partly over a heavy sand, and no draught-cattle or vehicle of any kind to assist, I pressed him to accept of the services of the seamen of his majesty's ships, who were accordingly landed as required, in parties of one and two hundred, and worked with great cheerfulness. A party of twenty-seven artillery-men, who had entered at Madras, their time being expired, were also, at Colonel Stuart's request, landed to assist in the battery under Mr. William Staines, one of the midshipmen of the Suffolk. Three of the Suffolk's upper-deck guns were landed to supply as many found defective in the grand battery from injury received, and false boring. Three hundred seamen and marines, under the command of Captain Smith, late of the Diomedé, were also under orders to assist in storming the breach, had the enemy determined to hold out.

Colonel Stuart and myself have sent all the prisoners, with a few exceptions, to Madras, in a transport and prize, under convoy of his majesty's ship Heroine. There appeared some disposition among the soldiers of the garrison to mutiny after the summons was delivered, which probably accelerated the surrender. His majesty's forces were put in possession of the garrison that very evening; the Dutch troops marched out, and grounded their arms in the battery.

Previously to the surrender of Trincomale, the ships and boats of the Squadron took two small vessels laden with provisions and stores for the garrison from Columbo, and some small craft belonging to the port; having also found one small ketch, under the guns of the fort, laden with rice, the whole of little value.

PETER RAINIER.

*A general Return of the Killed and Wounded of the Seamen of his Majesty's Squadron under my Command during the Siege of Trincomale.*

Suffolk.—2 Seamen wounded.

Centurion.—1 Seaman killed, and 2 ditto wounded.

Heroine.—2 Seamen wounded.

Total.—1 Seaman killed, and 6 ditto wounded.

AUGUST 31. Fort Oostenburgh surrendered to his majesty's arms this morning according to capitulation, which please make known to their lordships; and, I flatter myself, when it is considered how much time and labour is saved, that the construction of batteries, and the consequent repair of the works damaged when captured, would necessarily have required, the number of casualties prevented, and lives preserved, the great advantage of obtaining possession of so important a fortification in an uninjured state at this advanced season of the year, in the security thereby afforded to both places from any enterprise of the enemy, with the acquisition of the only safe harbour on this side of India, and that a very fine one, the great object of the expedition, the value of this most seasonable surrender can scarcely be too highly estimated. Much commendation is due to the deputy adjutant-general, Major Agnew, for his ability and dexterity in conducting this negotiation with the Commandant of Fort Oostenburgh.

Lieutenant Pulham, of the Suffolk, cut out a small vessel from under the guns of Fort Oostenburgh the night before last, without receiving any molestation from the enemy, the crew having abandoned her.

DOWNING STREET, Jan. 16.

A dispatch, of which the following is an extract, has been received from Lieutenant-colonel Craufurd, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majesty's principal Secretary of State for the Foreign Department, dated Head Quarters of Marshal Clairfait's Army, Creutzenach, the 21st of December, 1795.

In consequence of the advantages obtained by Marshal Clairfait, as stated in my last, General Jourdan, after having attempted in vain by different manoeuvres to secure the right of his army, began his retreat from the Nahe on the 13th instant, and on the 15th he took a position upon the Hunfruch, occupying all the principal passes between Bacharach on the Rhine, and Trarbach on the Moselle.

From the 15th to the present date several unimportant actions have taken place between the advanced corps of these two armies, and the Austrian light troops have at different times scoured the country from Birkenfeldt to Treves; but the strength of the enemy's position in the mountains,



mountains, and the roads that lead to it being rendered so bad by the late rains as to make the march of heavy artillery almost impossible, have prevented Marshal Clairfait from undertaking any operation of consequence. His excellency's line now extends from Dreyekhausen on the Rhine, by Stromburg, Kirn, and Oberstein, to Birkenfeld, from whence the left of his army is connected by a chain of light troops with Marshal Wurmser's right, which occupies Kaiserslautern. Marshal Wurmser has drawn his line from Kaiserslautern, by Nienstadt, along the rivulet called the Spirebach, to the Rhine.

General Pichegru has made several attempts to oblige the Austrians to abandon the post of Kaiserslautern, and on the

20th instant he attacked it with very superior numbers; but, after an action of several hours, he was completely repulsed, with the loss of near two thousand men, and several cannon.

The Austrians had, on this occasion, twenty-nine officers, and between six and seven hundred non-commissioned officers and privates, killed and wounded.

The enemy sometimes make demonstrations from Dusseldorf, but the Austrian corps stationed upon the Seig Rivulet keeps them completely in check on that side.

Part of Marshal Wurmser's army and the Prince of Condé's corps defend the right bank of the Rhine from Philippsburgh to Basle.

## REMARKABLE EVENTS from Jan. 1795 to Jan. 1796.

1795.

**JANUARY 2.** The powder-mills of Messrs. Pigou and Andrews, at Dartford, were blown up, and eleven men killed thereby.

4. Advice was received of the capture of Grave, &c. by the French.

5. The French crossed the Waal in great numbers, over the ice, and possessed themselves of all the neighbouring country. They took two regiments of Dutch troops prisoners.

8. A smart action between the British and French troops, near the Waal, in which the latter were defeated.

13. Five seamen belonging to the *Culloden* executed at Portsmouth for mutiny.

18. The Exchange at Liverpool destroyed by fire.

20. The Stadtholder and his suite arrived in England.

19. News arrived that the French forces had taken possession of all Holland, and that the Stadtholder and his family had fled to England.

**FEBRUARY 4.** The Habeas Corpus Suspension Act renewed.

8. The *St. Jago* Spanish register ship prize-cause finally decided in favour of the captors.

5. The Turkish ambassador made his long-delayed public entry.

11. A desperate action between the *Blanche* frigate, of 32 guns, and a French frigate of 38; the Frenchman was taken, but the brave commander of the *Blanche*, Captain Faulknor, killed.

— Twenty French merchantmen taken and destroyed by Sir John Borlase Warren's squadron.

In this month the Duke of York was appointed field-marshal of the forces.

**MARCH 7.** Sir Richard Pellew took and destroyed fifteen sail of the French merchantmen.

14. An engagement took place in the Mediterranean, in which the French fleet was defeated by Admiral Hotham, with the loss of two ships of the line, and a great number of men.

Various riots happened in the course of this month on account of the dearth of provisions.

**APRIL 8.** The nuptials of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and the Princess Caroline of Brunswick solemnized in the Chapel-Royal, St. James's.

20. Advice received of the King of Prussia having concluded a peace with the French republic.

23. Warren Hastings, Esq. after a trial of seven years and three months, was, by the peers, acquitted of all the charges brought against him by the house of commons of Great Britain.

30. The Rev. Mr. Jackson, who had been convicted in Dublin upon a charge of high treason, died, as was supposed by poison.

**MAY 1.** The *Boyne* man of war, of 98 guns, took fire at Spithead, and was burnt to the water's edge.

5. Horrid massacres committed at Lyons.

7. The whole of the British infantry arrived in England from the Continent.

9. The squadron under the command of Sir Richard Strachan captured twelve sail of French merchantmen.

20. G. Errington, Esq. of Grays, in Essex, assassinated by Ann Broderick, with whom he had cohabited previous to his marriage with another lady.

— A violent insurrection at Paris, on account of the scarcity of bread, and other

other provisions, in which many lives were lost.

25. Nineteen persons beheaded for promoting the insurrection of the 20th.

JUNE 3. A dreadful fire at Copenhagen, which destroyed 1,363 houses, several churches, and many public buildings.

6. Vice-Admiral Cornwallis captured eight valuable French merchantmen.

8. Louis Capet, son of the late unfortunate Louis XVI. died at Paris, aged eleven years.

23. Three line-of-battle ships taken from the French by Lord Bridport's fleet off l'Orient.

JULY 7. A smart action between the British and French fleets in the Mediterranean, in which the enemy lost one ship of the line, the Alcide. She blew up soon after she struck, and four hundred of her crew perished.

17. Miss Broderick tried at Chelmsford for the murder of Mr. Errington, and acquitted, on proof of her insanity.

21. The whole body of French emigrants completely defeated at Quiberon.

AUGUST 4. Intelligence received of the capture of six British transports, with troops and stores, by the French cruisers in the West Indies.

5. Count Sombrenil and one hundred and eighty-seven emigrant officers, taken at Quiberon, were shot at Vannes.

9. Peace between France and Spain proclaimed at Madrid.

12. The navigation of the Scheldt declared free.

14. A violent thunder-storm, which did great mischief in many parts of the kingdom.

16. Advice received of a dreadful fire at Montego Bay, in Jamaica, which destroyed one hundred and ten houses, and an immense quantity of property.

25. Trincomale taken by the English.

SEPTEMBER 1. O'Connor found guilty of high treason, at Naas, in Ireland, and afterwards hanged.

— A dreadful fire at Potsdam.

6. The whole of the French army crossed the Rhine, and captured several strong places.

8. Advice received of Lieutenant Pearce of the navy, having formally taken possession of Nootka, in the name of his Britannic majesty.

17. St. Paul's church, Covent-Garden, entirely destroyed by fire.

20. Mannheim surrendered to the French. Peace proclaimed at Hanover between the Elector and the French republic.

OCTOBER 4. The powder-magazine at Maubeuge blew up by accident.

6. A dreadful insurrection broke out

at Paris, which lasted several days; but the conventional troops at length overpowered the insurgents: great numbers were killed on both sides. Many of the conspirators have since been executed.

— Intelligence received of the capture of a Dutch East-Indiaman and a South Whaler, by his Majesty's ship Seahorse; and of the Comet Dutch sloop of war, by the Unicorn.

7. The Censeur of 74 guns, and the greater part of the homeward-bound Mediterranean fleet, captured by a French squadron.

9. A gold mine discovered, near Wicklow, in Ireland.

13. A rich Dutch East-Indiaman, called the Zeelylee, prize to the Sceptre man of war, lost on the rocks of Scilly, and many of her crew perished.

13. The French army under the command of General Jourdan obliged to fall back from Mentz, and, on its retreat to the Rhine, experienced several defeats.

— The king grossly insulted, and his person endangered, on his way to and from the house of lords.

31. Advice received of the capture of Simon's Bay, Cape of Good Hope, by Vice-Admiral Elphinstone, &c. and of the detention of five ships found in the harbour.

NOVEMBER 11. Colonel Crauford's account of the defeat of the French before Mentz, published in an Extraordinary Gazette.

14. The transports with emigrant troops on-board, for the continent, driven on the coast of Calais.

17. The West-India convoy, under the command of Rear-Admiral Christian, driven back to port, in a severe gale of wind, and five of the transports, with troops on board, lost.

23. An account of the surrender of the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope to his majesty's forces, published in an Extraordinary Gazette.

25. The King of Poland made a formal surrender of his crown, for a pension.

DECEMBER 13. Two bills, for the preservation of his majesty's person, and the prevention of seditious meetings, received the royal assent by commission. These bills caused many very spirited debates in both houses, and petitions from various parts of the country, both for and against them, were presented.

1796.

JANUARY 1. A suspension of arms between the French and the Austrians was agreed on for one month.

7. Her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales delivered of a daughter.



# ANECDOTES OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF ADMIRAL LORD RODNEY.

**G**EORGE BRIDGES, Lord Rodney, was born in the year 1718. His father was a naval officer; and commanding, at the time of his son's birth, the yacht in which the king, attended by the Duke of Chandos, was passing to or from Hanover, he asked and obtained leave to have the honour of calling his infant son George Bridges. The royal and noble god-fathers advised Captain Rodney to educate his boy for his own profession, promising to promote him as rapidly as the merit he should display and the regulations of the navy would permit.

Of young Rodney's early exertions in the service of his country, we have no account, till the year 1751, when we find him, in the rank of a commodore, sent out to make accurate discoveries respecting an island which was supposed to lie about 50° N. lat. and about 300 leagues W. of England: but he returned without having seen any such island as that which he was appointed to survey. In the war which soon followed this voyage of discovery, he was promoted to the rank of a rear-admiral, and was employed to bombard Havre-de-Grace; which in 1759 and 1760 he considerably damaged, together with some shipping. In 1761 he was sent on an expedition against Martinico, which was reduced in the beginning of the year 1762, and about the same time St. Lucia surrendered to Capt. Harvey. Both these islands were restored to the French at the peace of 1763.

In reward for his services, he was created a knight of the Bath; but being inattentive, as many seamen are, to the rules of economy, his circumstances became so embarrassed that he was obliged to fly from his country, with very slight hopes of ever being able to return. He was at Paris when the ill-advised policy of that court made them take a decided part with America against Great-Britain; and it is said that some men in power, no strangers to the desperate state of Sir George's affairs, offered him a high

command in the French navy, if he would carry arms against his own country. This offer he rejected with becoming indignation. Soon after this gallant behaviour, the Duke de Chartres, afterwards the infamous Orleans, told Sir George that he was to have a command in the fleet which was to be opposed to that under the command of his countryman Mr. Keppel: and with an insulting air asked him what he thought would be the consequence of their meeting? "That my countryman will carry your highness with him to learn English," was the high-spirited reply.—When the divisions, which the mutual recriminations of Admiral Keppel and Sir Hugh Palliser excited in the British navy, made it difficult for the ministry to procure experienced, and at the same time popular, commanders for their fleets, Lord Sandwich wrote to Sir George Bridges Rodney, offering him a principal command; but the difficulty was for the veteran to find money to pay his accounts in France, so that he might be permitted to leave that kingdom. The money, it has been repeatedly affirmed, was advanced to him by the courtiers whose offer he had before indignantly rejected. He arrived, therefore, in England, and was again employed in the service of his country. His first exploit after his appointment was in January 1780, when he took nineteen Spanish transports bound to Cadiz from Bilboa, together with a 64-gun ship and five frigates, their convoy. On the 16th of the same month he fell in with the Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven sail of the line, under the command of Don Juan de Langara; of which one was blown up during the engagement, five were taken and carried into Gibraltar, among which was the admiral's ship, and the rest were much shattered. In April the same year, he fell in with the French fleet, under the command of Admiral Guichen, at Martinico, whom he obliged to fight,

fight, and whom he completely beat; though from the shattered state of his own fleet, and the unwillingness of the enemy to risk another action, he took none of their ships. The successful efforts of our gallant admiral during the year 1780 were generally applauded through the nation. He received the thanks of both houses of parliament, and addresses of thanks from various parts of Great-Britain, and the islands to which his victories were more particularly serviceable. In December the same year, he made an attempt, together with General Vaughan, on St. Vincent's, but failed. In 1781, he continued his exertions, with much success, in defending the West-India islands; and, along with the above named general, he conquered St. Eustatius; on which occasion his conduct to the inhabitants has been much, though perhaps unjustly, censured. The island was certainly a nest of contraband traders.

On the 12th of April 1782, he came to a close action with the French fleet under Count de Grasse; during which he sunk one ship and took five, of which the admiral's ship, the *Ville de Paris*, was one. The following year brought peace; but, as a reward for his numerous services, he had a grant of 2000*l.* a-year for himself and his two successors. He had long before been created a baronet, was rear-admiral of Great-Britain, and at length was justly promoted to the peerage, by the title of Baron Rodney of Stoke, Somersetshire, and made vice-admiral of Great-Britain. He was once also governor of Greenwich hospital.

Lord Rodney had been twice married; first to the sister of the Earl of Northampton, and secondly to the daughter of John Clies, Esq. with whom he did not reside for several years before his death, which happened on the 24th of May 1792. He was succeeded in title and estates by his son George, who married in 1781 Martha, daughter of the Right Hon.

Alderman Harley, by whom he has issue.

Of the private life of Lord Rodney we know but little. His attention to the wants of the seamen, and the warrant officers serving under him, indicated that humanity which is always allied to true courage. He has often, from the number of dishes which his rank brought to his table, selected something very plain for himself, and sent the rest to the midshipmen's mess. His public transactions will transmit his name with honour to posterity; his bravery was unquestionable, and his success has been seldom equalled. It has, indeed, been very generally said, that his skill in naval tactics was not great, and that he was indebted to the superior abilities of Capt. Young and Sir Charles Douglas for the manœuvres by which he was so successful against Langara and De Grasse. But, supposing this to be true, it detracts not from his merit. A weak or foolish commander could not always make choice of the ablest officers for his first captains, nor would such a man be guided by their advice.

Whatever was Lord Rodney's skill in the science of naval war, or however much he may have been beholden to the counsels of others, he certainly possessed himself the distinguished merit of indefatigable exertion; for he never omitted any thing within the compass of his power to bring the enemy to action. He therefore unquestionably deserves the respect and the gratitude of his country. In the year 1783 the house of assembly in Jamaica voted 1000*l.* towards erecting a marble statue to him, as a mark of their gratitude and veneration for his gallant services, so timely and gloriously performed for the salvation of that island in particular, as well as the whole of the British West India islands and trade in general. We have not, however, heard of any such tribute being paid to him in Britain either before or since his death.



## HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.—Continued from page 366.

THE victory at Briar's Creek, mentioned in our last, proved of considerable service to the British cause. Great numbers of the loyalists joined his army, and considerably increased its force. Gen. Prevost was enabled to stretch his posts farther up the river, and to guard all the principal passes; so that General Lincoln was reduced to a state of inaction; and at last moved off towards Augusta, in order to protect the provincial assembly, which was obliged to sit in that place, the capital being now in the hands of the British.

Lincoln had no sooner quitted his post, than it was judged a proper time by the British general to put in execution the grand scheme which had been meditated against Carolina. Many difficulties indeed lay in his way. The river Savannah was so swelled by the excessive rains of the season, that it seemed impassable; the opposite shore for a great way was so full of swamps and marshes, that no army could march over it without the greatest difficulty; and, to render the passage still more difficult, General Moultrie was left with a considerable body of troops in order to oppose the enemy's attempts. But in spite of every opposition, the constancy and perseverance of the British forces at last prevailed. General Moultrie was defeated, and obliged to retire towards Charlestown; and the victorious army, after having waded through the marshes for some time, at last arrived in an open country, through which they pursued their march with great rapidity towards the capital; while General Lincoln remained in a state of security at Augusta, vainly imagining that the obstacles he had left in the way could not be surmounted.

Certain intelligence of the danger to which Charlestown was exposed, at last aroused the American general from his lethargy. A chosen body of infantry, mounted on horseback for the greater expedition, was dispatched

before him; while Lincoln himself followed with all the forces he could collect. General Moultrie too, with the troops he had brought from the Savannah, and some others he had collected since his retreat from thence, had taken possession of all the avenues leading to Charlestown, and prepared for a vigorous defence. But all opposition proved ineffectual. The Americans were defeated in every encounter; and, retreating continually, allowed the British army to come within cannon-shot of Charlestown on the 12th of May.

The town was now summoned to surrender, and the inhabitants would gladly have agreed to observe a neutrality during the rest of the war, and would have engaged also for the rest of the province. But, these terms not being accepted, they made preparations for a vigorous defence. It was not, however, in the power of the British commander at this time to make an attack with any prospect of success. His artillery was not of sufficient weight; there were no ships to support his attack by land; and Gen. Lincoln, advancing rapidly with a superior army, threatened to inclose him between his own force and the town; so that should he fail in his first attempt certain destruction would be the consequence. For these reasons he withdrew his forces from before the town, and took possession of two islands, called St. James's and St. John's, lying to the southward; where having waited some time, his force was augmented by the arrival of two frigates. With these he determined to make himself master of Port Royal, another island possessed of an excellent harbour and many other natural advantages, from its situation also commanding all the sea-coast from Charlestown to Savannah River. The American general however did not allow this to be accomplished without opposition. Perceiving that his opponent had occupied an advantageous post on St. John's island preparatory to his enterprise

prise against Port Royal, he attempted, on the 20th of June, to dislodge him from it; but, after an obstinate attack, the provincials were, as usual, obliged to retire with considerable loss. On this occasion the success of the British arms was in a great measure owing to an armed float; which galled the right flank of the enemy so effectually, that they could direct their efforts only against the strongest part of the lines, which proved impregnable to their attacks. This disappointment was instantly followed by the loss of Port Royal, which General Prevost took possession of, and put his troops into proper stations, waiting for the arrival of such reinforcements as were necessary for the intended attack on Charlestown.

In the mean time, Count d'Estaing, who, as we have already observed, had put into Boston harbour to refit, had used his utmost efforts to ingratiate himself with the inhabitants of that city. Zealous also in the cause of his master, he had published a proclamation to be dispersed through Canada, inviting the people to return to their original friendship with France, and declaring that all who renounced their allegiance to Great Britain should certainly find a protector in the King of France. All his endeavours, however, proved insufficient at this time to produce any revolution, or even to form a party of any consequence among the Canadians.

As soon as the French admiral had refitted his fleet, he took the opportunity, while that of Admiral Byron had been shattered by a storm, of sailing to the West Indies. During his operations there, the Americans having represented his conduct as totally unserviceable to them, he received orders from Europe to assist the colonies with all possible speed.

In compliance with these orders, he directed his course towards Georgia, with a design to recover that province out of the hands of the enemy, and to put it, as well as South Carolina, in such a posture of defence as would effectually secure them from any future attack. This seemed to be an easy matter, from the little force with which he knew he should be opposed;

and the next object in contemplation was no less than the destruction of the British fleet and army at New York, and their total expulsion from the continent of America. Full of these hopes, the French commander arrived off the coast of Georgia with a fleet of twenty-two sail of the line and ten large frigates. His arrival was so little expected, that several vessels laden with provisions and military stores fell into his hands: the *Experiment* also, a vessel of 50 guns, commanded by Sir James Wallace, was taken after a stout resistance. On the continent, the British troops were divided. General Prevost, with an inconsiderable part, remained at Savannah; but the main force was under Colonel Maitland at Port Royal. On the first appearance of the French fleet, an express was dispatched to Colonel Maitland: but it was intercepted by the enemy; so that, before he could set out in order to join the commander in chief, the Americans had secured most of the passes by land, while the French fleet effectually blocked up the passage by sea. But by taking advantage of creeks and inlets, and marching over land, he arrived just in time to relieve Savannah.

D'Estaing, after making a gasconade of what had happened at St. Vincent's and Grenada, had allowed General Prevost twenty-four hours to deliberate whether he should capitulate or not. This time the general employed in making the best preparations he could for a defence; and during this time it was that Colonel Maitland arrived. D'Estaing's summons was now rejected; and, as on this occasion the superiority of the enemy was by no means so much out of proportion as it had been at Grenada, there was every probability of success on the part of the British. The garrison now consisted of 3000 men, all of approved valour and experience, while the united force of the French and Americans did not amount to 10,000. The event was answerable to the expectations of the British general. Having the advantage of a strong fortification and excellent engineers, the fire of the allies made so little impression, that

D'Estaing



D'Estaing resolved to bombard the town, and a battery of nine mortars was erected for the purpose. This produced a request from General Prevost, that the women and children might be allowed to retire to a place of safety. But the allied commanders had the inhumanity to refuse compliance; and they resolved to give a general assault. This was accordingly attempted on the 9th of October; but the assailants were every where repulsed with such slaughter, that 1200 were killed and wounded; among the former was Count Polaski, and among the latter D'Estaing himself.

This disaster entirely overthrew the sanguine hopes of the Americans and French; mutual reproaches and animosities took place in the most violent degree; and, after waiting eight days longer, both parties prepared for a retreat; the French to their shipping, and the Americans into Carolina.

While the allies were thus unsuccessfully employed in the southern colonies, their antagonists were no less assiduous in distressing them in the northern parts. Sir George Collier was sent with a fleet, carrying on-board General Matthews, with a body of land-forces, into the province of Virginia. Their first attempt was on the town of Portsmouth; where, though the enemy had destroyed some ships of great value, the British troops arrived in time to save a great number of others. On this occasion about 120 vessels of different sizes were burnt, and twenty carried off; and an immense quantity of provisions designed for the use of General Washington's army was either destroyed or carried off, together with a great variety of naval and military stores. The fleet and army returned with little or no loss to New York.

The success with which this expedition was attended, soon gave encouragement to attempt another. The Americans had for some time been employed in the erection of two strong forts on the river; the one at Verplanks Neck on the east, and the other at Stoney Point on the west side. These when completed would have been of the utmost service to the Americans, as commanding the principal

pass, called King's Ferry, between the northern and southern colonies. At present, however, they were not in a condition to make any effectual defence; and it was therefore determined to attack them before the works should be completed. The force employed on this occasion was divided into two bodies; one of which directed its course against Verplanks, and the other against Stoney Point. The former was commanded by General Vaughan, the latter by General Pattison, while the shipping was under the direction of Sir George Collier. General Vaughan met with no resistance, the enemy abandoning their works, and setting fire to every thing combustible that they could not carry off. At Stoney Point, however, a vigorous defence was made, though the garrison was at last obliged to capitulate upon honourable conditions. To secure the possession of this last, which was the more important of the two, General Clinton removed from his former situation, and encamped in such a manner that Washington could not give any assistance. The Americans, however, revenged themselves by distressing, with their numerous privateers, the trade to New York.

This occasioned a third expedition to Connecticut, where these privateers were chiefly built and harboured. The command was given to Governor Tryon and to General Garth, an officer of known valour and experience. Under convoy of a considerable number of armed vessels they landed at Newhaven, where they demolished the batteries that had been erected to oppose them, and destroyed the shipping and naval stores; but they spared the town itself, as the inhabitants had abstained from firing out of their houses upon the troops. From Newhaven they marched to Fairfield, where they proceeded as before, reducing the town also to ashes. Norwalk was next attacked, which in like manner was reduced to ashes; as was also Greenfield, a small seaport in the neighbourhood.

These successes proved very alarming as well as detrimental to the Americans; so that General Washington determined at all events to drive the enemy

enemy from Stoney Point. For this purpose he sent Gen. Wayne with a detachment of chosen men, directing them to attempt the recovery of it by surprise. On this occasion the Americans shewed a spirit and resolution exceeding any thing they had performed during the course of the war. Though after the capture of it by the British the fortifications of this place had been completed, and were very strong, they attacked the enemy with bayonets, after passing through a heavy fire of musquetry and grape-shot; and, in spite of all opposition, obliged the surviving part of the garrison, amounting to 500 men, to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

Though the Americans did not at present attempt to retain possession of Stoney Point, the success they had met with in the enterprise emboldened them to make a similar attempt on Paulus Hook, a fortified post on the Jersey side opposite to New York; but in this they were not attended with equal success, being obliged to retire with precipitation after they had made themselves masters of one or two posts.

Another expedition of greater importance was now projected on the part of the Americans. This was against a post on the river Penobscot, on the borders of Nova Scotia, of which the British had lately taken possession, and where they had begun to erect a fort which threatened to be a very great inconvenience to the colonists. The armament destined against it was so soon got in readiness, that Colonel MacLane, the commanding officer at Penobscot, found himself obliged to drop the execution of part of his scheme; and, instead of a regular fort, to content himself with putting the works already constructed in as good a posture of defence as possible. The Americans could not effect a landing without a great deal of difficulty, and bringing the guns of their largest vessels to bear upon the shore. As soon as this was done, however, they erected several batteries, and kept up a brisk fire for the space of a fortnight; after which they proposed to give a general assault; but, before this could be effected,

they perceived Sir George Collier with a British fleet sailing up the river to attack them. On this they instantly embarked their artillery and military stores, sailing up the river as far as possible in order to avoid him. They were so closely pursued, however, that not a single vessel could escape; so that the whole fleet, consisting of nineteen armed vessels, and twenty four transports, was destroyed; most of them indeed being blown up by themselves. The soldiers and sailors were obliged to wander through immense deserts, where they suffered much for want of provisions; and, to add to their calamities, a quarrel broke out between the soldiers and seamen concerning the cause of their disaster, which ended in a violent fray, wherein a great number were killed.

Thus the arms of America and France being almost every where unsuccessful, the independency of the former seemed yet to be in danger notwithstanding the assistance of so powerful an ally, when further encouragement was given by the accession of Spain to the confederacy against Britain in the month of June 1779. The first effect of this appeared in an invasion of West Florida by the Spaniards, in September 1779. As the country was in no state of defence, the enemy easily made themselves masters of the whole almost without opposition. Their next enterprise was against the Bay of Honduras, where the British logwood-cutters were settled. These, finding themselves too weak to resist, applied to the governor of Jamaica for relief; who sent them a supply of men, ammunition, and military stores, under Capt. Dalrymple. Before the arrival of this detachment, the principal settlement in those parts, called St. George's Key, had been taken by the Spaniards and re-taken by the British. In his way Capt. Dalrymple fell in with a squadron from Admiral Parker in search of some register-ships richly laden; but which, retreating into the harbour of Omca, were too strongly protected by the fort to be attacked with safety. A project was then formed, in conjunction with the people



people of Honduras, to reduce this fort. The design was to surprise it; but, the Spaniards having discovered them, they were obliged to fight. Victory quickly declared for the British; but the fortifications were so strong, that the artillery they had brought along with them were found too light to make any impression. It was then determined to try the success of an escalade; and this was executed with so much spirit, that the Spaniards stood astonished without making any resistance, and, in spite of all the efforts of the officers, threw down their arms and surrendered. The spoil was immense, being valued at three millions of dollars. The Spaniards chiefly lamented the loss of 250 quintals of quicksilver; a commodity indispensably necessary in the working of their gold and silver mines, so that they offered to ransom it at any price; but this was refused, as well as the ransom of the fort, tho' the governor offered 300,000 dollars for it. A small garrison was left for the defence of the place: but it was quickly attacked by a superior force; they were obliged to evacuate it, tho' not without destroying every thing that could be of use to the enemy; spiking the guns, and even locking the gates of the fort and carrying off the keys. All this was done in the sight of the besiegers; after which the garrison embarked without the loss of a man.

As no operations of any consequence took place this year in the province of New York, the congress made use of the opportunity to dispatch General Sullivan with a considerable force, in order to take vengeance on the Indians for their ravages and depredations: and the object of the expedition was, not merely the reduction of them, but if possible their utter extirpation. Of this the Indians were apprised; and, collecting all their strength, resolved to come to a decisive engagement. Accordingly they took a strong post in the most woody and mountainous part of the country; erecting a breast-work in their front of large logs of wood extending half a mile in length, while their right flank was covered by a river, and the

left by a hill of difficult access. This advantageous position they had taken by the advice of the refugees who were among them, and of whom 200 or 300 were present in the battle.

Thus posted, the Indians waited the approach of the American army: but the latter, having brought some artillery along with them, played it against the breast-work of the enemy with such success, that in two hours it was almost destroyed; and at the same time a party having reached the top of the hill, they were afraid of being surrounded, on which they instantly fled with precipitation, leaving a great number of killed and wounded behind them. The Americans after this battle met with no further resistance of any consequence. They were suffered to proceed without interruption, and to execute in the most ample manner the vengeance they had projected. On entering the country of the Indians, it appeared that they had been acquainted with agriculture and the arts of peace far beyond what had been supposed. From General Sullivan's account it was learned, that the Indian houses were large, convenient, and even elegant; their grounds were excellently cultivated, and their gardens abounded in fruit-trees and vegetables of all kinds fit for food. The whole of this fine country was now by the American general converted into a desert. Forty towns and settlements, besides scattered habitations, were demolished; the fields of corn, the orchards, the plantations, were utterly laid waste; all the fruit-trees were cut down; and so great had been the industry of the Indians, that in one orchard 1500 of these were destroyed. The quantity of corn wasted on this occasion was supposed to amount to 160,000 bushels. In short, such was the desolation, that, on the American army's leaving the country, not a house, not a field of corn, nor a fruit-tree, was left upon the ground; nor was an Indian to be seen throughout the whole tract.

We must now take a view of the transactions in the southern colonies; to which the war was, in the year 1780, so effectually transferred, that the operations there became at last decisive.

cisive. The success of General Prevost in advancing to the very capital of South Carolina has been already related, together with the obstacles which prevented him from becoming master of it at that time. Towards the end of the year 1779, however, Sir Henry Clinton set sail from New York with a considerable body of troops, intended for the attack of Charlestown, South Carolina, in a fleet of ships of war and transports, under the command of Vice-admiral Arbuthnot. They had a very tedious voyage; the weather was uncommonly bad; several of the transports were lost, as were also the greater part of the horses which they carried with them, intended for cavalry and other public uses; and an ordnance-ship likewise foundered at sea. Having arrived at Savannah, where they endeavoured to repair the damages sustained on their voyage, they proceeded from thence, on the 10th of February 1780, to North Edisto, the place of debarkation which had been previously appointed. They had a favourable and speedy passage thither: and, though it required time to have the bar explored and the channel marked, the transports all entered the harbour the next day; and the army took possession of John's island without opposition. Preparations were then made for passing the squadron over Charlestown-bar, where the high-water spring-tides were only nineteen feet deep; but no opportunity offered of going into the harbour till the 20th of March, when it was effected without accident, though the American galleys continually attempted to prevent the English boats from sounding the channel. The British troops had previously removed from John's to James's island; and on the 29th of the same month they effected their landing on Charlestown Neck. On the 1st of April they broke ground within 800 yards of the American works; and by the 8th the besiegers guns were mounted in battery.

As soon as the army began to erect their batteries against the town, Admiral Arbuthnot embraced the first favourable opportunity of passing Sullivan's island, upon which was a

strong fort of batteries, the chief defence of the harbour. He weighed on the 9th, with the Roebuck, Richmond, and Romulus, Blonde, Virginia, Raleigh, and Sandwich armed-ship, the Renown bringing up the rear; and, passing through a severe fire, anchored in about two hours under James's island, with the loss of twenty-seven seamen killed and wounded. The Richmond's fore-top-mast was shot away, and the ships in general sustained damage in their masts and rigging, though not materially in their hulls. But the Acetus transport, having on-board some naval stores, grounded within gun-shot of Sullivan's island, and received so much damage that she was obliged to be abandoned and burnt.

On the 10th, Sir Henry Clinton and Admiral Arbuthnot summoned the town to surrender to his majesty's arms; but Major-general Lincoln, who commanded in Charlestown, returned them an answer, declaring it to be his intention to defend the place. The batteries were now opened against the town; and from their effect the fire of the American advanced works considerably abated. It appears, that the number of troops under the command of Lincoln were by far too few for defending works of such extent as those of Charlestown; and that many of these were men little accustomed to military service, and very ill provided with clothes and other necessaries. Lincoln had been for some time expecting reinforcements and supplies from Virginia and other places; but they came in very slowly. Earl Cornwallis and Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton under him, were also extremely active in intercepting such reinforcements and supplies as were sent to the American general. They totally defeated a considerable body of cavalry and militia which was proceeding to the relief of the town; and also made themselves masters of some posts, which gave them in a great degree the command of the country, by which means great supplies of provisions fell into their hands.

Such was the state of things, and Fort Sullivan had also been taken by the king's troops, when on the 18th



of April General Clinton again summoned the town to surrender; an offer being made, as had been done before, that, if they surrendered, the lives and property of the inhabitants should be preserved to them. Articles of capitulation were then proposed by General Lincoln, but the terms were not agreed to by General Clinton. At length, however, the town being closely invested on all sides, and the preparations to storm it in every part being in great forwardness, and the ships ready to move to the assault, General Lincoln, who had been applied to for that purpose by the inhabitants, surrendered it on such articles of capitulation as General Clinton had before agreed to. This was on the 4th of May, which was one month and two days after the town had been first summoned to surrender.

A large quantity of ordnance, arms, and ammunition, was found in Charlestown; and, according to Sir Henry Clinton's accounts, the number of prisoners taken in Charlestown amounted to 5618 men, exclusively of near a thousand sailors in arms; but, according to General Lincoln's account transmitted to the congress, the whole number of continental troops taken prisoners amounted to no more than 2487. The remainder, therefore, included in General Clinton's account, must have consisted of militia and inhabitants of the town. Several American frigates were also taken or destroyed in the harbour of Charlestown.

The loss of Charlestown occasioned a considerable alarm in America: and their popular writers, particularly the author of the celebrated performance intitled *Common Sense*, in some other pieces made use of it as a powerful argument to lead them to more vigorous exertions against Great Britain, that they might the more effectually and certainly secure their independence.

While Sir Henry Clinton was employed in his voyage to Charlestown, and in the siege of that place, the garrison at New York seem not to have been wholly free from apprehensions for their own safety. An

intense frost, accompanied with great falls of snow, began about the middle of December 1779, and shut up the navigation of the port of New York from the sea, within a few days after the departure of Admiral Arbuthnot and General Clinton. The severity of the weather increased to so great a degree, that towards the middle of January all communications with New York by water were entirely cut off, and as many new ones opened by the ice. The inhabitants could scarcely be said to be in an insular state. Horses with heavy carriages could go over the ice into the Jerseys from one island to another. The passage in the North River, even in the widest part from New York to Paulus Hook, which was 2000 yards, was about the 19th of January practicable for the heaviest cannon: an event which had been unknown in the memory of man. Provisions were soon after transported upon sledges, and a detachment of cavalry marched upon the ice from New York to Staten Island, which was a distance of eleven miles.

The city of New York being thus circumstanced, was considered as much exposed to the attacks from the continental troops: and it was strongly reported that General Washington was meditating a great stroke upon New York, with his whole force, by different attacks. Some time before this, Major-general Pattison, commandant at New York, having received an address from many of the inhabitants, offering to put themselves in military array, he thought the present a favourable opportunity of trying the sincerity of their professions. Accordingly he issued a proclamation, calling upon all the male inhabitants from 16 to 60 to take up arms. The requisition was so readily complied with, that in a few days 40 companies from the six wards of the city were inrolled, officered, and under arms, to the number of 2600, many substantial citizens serving in the ranks of each company. Other volunteer companies were formed; and the city was put into a very strong posture of defence.

No attack, however, was made upon

upon New York, whatever design might originally have been meditated: but an attempt was made upon Staten-Island, where there were 1800 men, under the command of Brigadier-general Sterling, who were well entrenched. General Washington, whose army was huddled at Morris Town, sent a detachment of 2700 men, with six pieces of cannon, two mortars, and some horses, commanded by Lord Sterling, who arrived at Staten Island early in the morning of the 15th of January. The advanced posts of the British troops retired upon the approach of the Americans, who formed the line, and made some movements in the course of the day; but they withdrew in the night, after having burnt one house, pillaged some others, and carried off with them about 200 head of cattle. Immediately on the arrival of the Americans on Staten Island, Lieutenant-general Knyphausen had embarked 600 men to attempt a passage, and to support General Sterling: but the floating ice compelled them to return. It is, however, imagined, that the appearance of these transports, with the British troops on-board, which the Americans could see towards the close of the day, induced the latter to make so precipitate a retreat.

After Charlestown had surrendered to the king's troops, General Clinton issued two proclamations, and also circulated a hand-bill amongst the inhabitants of South Carolina, in order to induce them to return to their allegiance, and to be ready to join the king's troops. It was said, that the helping hand of every man was wanted to re-establish peace and good government: and that as the commander in chief wished not to draw the king's friends into danger, while any doubt could remain of their success; so now, that this was certain, he trusted that one and all would heartily join, and by a general concurrence give effect to such necessary measures for that purpose as from time to time might be pointed out. Those who had families were to form a militia to remain at home, and occasionally to assemble in their own districts, when required, under offi-

cers of their own choosing, for the maintenance of peace and good order. Those who had no families, and who could conveniently be spared for a time, it was presumed, would cheerfully assist his majesty's troops in driving their oppressors, acting under the authority of congress, and all the miseries of war, far from that colony. For this purpose it was said to be necessary that the young men should be ready to assemble when required, and to serve with the king's troops for any six months of the ensuing twelve that might be found requisite, under proper regulations. They might choose officers to each company to command them; and were to be allowed, when on service, pay, ammunition, and provisions, in the same manner as the king's troops. When they joined the army, each man was to be furnished with a certificate, declaring that he was only engaged to serve as a militia-man for the time specified; that he was not to be marched beyond North Carolina and Georgia; and that, when the time was out, he was freed from all claims whatever of military service, excepting the common and usual militia-duty where he lived. He would then, it was said, have paid his debt to his country, and be intitled to enjoy undisturbed that peace, liberty, and property, at home, which he had contributed to secure.

The proclamations and publications of General Clinton appear to have produced some effect in South Carolina though they probably operated chiefly upon those who were before not much inclined to the cause of American independence. Two hundred and ten of the inhabitants of Charlestown signed an address to General Clinton and Admiral Arbuthnot, soliciting to be re-admitted to the character and condition of British subjects, the inhabitants of that city having been hitherto considered as prisoners on parole; declaring their disapprobation of the doctrine of American independence; and expressing their regret, that, after the repeal of those statutes which give rise to the troubles in America, the overtures made by his majesty's commissi-

ners.



oners had not been regarded by the congress. Sir Henry Clinton, in one of the proclamations issued at this time, declared, that if any persons should thenceforward appear in arms in order to prevent the establishment of his majesty's government in that country, or should under any pretence or authority whatsoever attempt to compel any other person to do so, or who should hinder or intimidate the king's faithful and loyal subjects from joining his forces or otherwise performing those duties their allegiance required, such persons should be treated with the utmost severity, and their estates be immediately seized in order to be confiscated.

Mean time the ravages of war did not prevent the Americans from paying some attention to the arts of peace. On the 4th of May an act passed by the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts Bay for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences.

Some doubts having arisen in the congress, towards the close of the preceding year, about the propriety of their assembling in the city of Philadelphia, it was now resolved that they should continue to meet there: and a committee of three members was appointed, to report a proper place where buildings might be provided for the reception of the congress, together with an estimate of the expence of providing such buildings and the necessary offices for the several boards. It was also resolved by the congress, that a monument should be erected to the memory of their late general Richard Montgomery, who fell at Quebec, in testimony of his signal and important services to the United States of America, with an inscription expressive of his amiable character and heroic achievements; and that the continental treasurers should be directed to advance a sum not exceeding 300l. to Dr. Franklin to defray the expence; that gentleman being desired to cause the monument to be executed at Paris, or in some other part of France. It was likewise resolved by the congress, that a court should be esta-

blished for the trial of all appeals from the court of admiralty of the United States of America, in cases of capture; to consist of three judges, appointed and commissioned by congress, and who were to take an oath of office; and that the trials in this court should be determined by the usage of nations.

The difficulties of the congress and of the people of America had been greatly increased by the depreciation of their paper-currency. At the time when the colonies engaged in a war with Great Britain, they had no regular civil governments established among them of sufficient energy to enforce the collection of taxes, or to provide funds for the redemption of such bills of credit as their necessities obliged them to issue. In consequence of this state of things, their bills increased in quantity far beyond the sum necessary for the purpose of a circulating medium: and, as they wanted at the same time specific funds to rest on for their redemption, they saw their paper-currency daily sink in value. The depreciation continued by a kind of gradual progression, from the year 1777 to 1780: so that, at the latter period, the continental dollars were passed by common consent, in most parts of America, at the rate of at least  $\frac{3}{40}$ ths below their nominal value. The impossibility of keeping up the credit of the currency to any fixed standard, occasioned great and almost insurmountable embarrassments in ascertaining the value of property, or carrying on trade with any sufficient certainty. Those who sold, and those who bought, were left without a rule whereon to form a judgment of their profit or their loss; and every species of commerce or exchange, whether foreign or domestic, was exposed to numberless and increasing difficulties. The consequences of the depreciation of the paper-currency were also felt with peculiar severity by such of the Americans as were engaged in their military services, and greatly augmented by their other hardships. The requisitions made by the congress to the several colonies for supplies, were also far from al-

ways being regularly complied with: and their troops were not unfrequently in want of the most common necessaries; which naturally occasioned complaints and discontent among them. Some of these difficulties, resulting from their circumstances and situation, perhaps no wisdom could have prevented: but they seem to have arisen in part from the congress not being sufficiently acquainted with the principles of finance, and from a defect of system in the departments of their government. The cause of the Americans appears also to have suffered somewhat by their depending too much on temporary enlistments. But the congress endeavoured, towards the close of the year 1780, to put their army upon a more permanent footing, and to give all the satisfaction to their officers and soldiers which their circumstances would permit. They appointed a committee for arranging their finances, and made some new regulations respecting their war-office and treasury-board, and other public departments.

Notwithstanding the disadvantages under which they laboured, the Americans seemed to entertain no doubts but that they should be able to maintain their independency. The 4th of July was celebrated this year at Philadelphia with some pomp, as the anniversary of American independence. A commencement for conferring degrees in the arts was held the same day, in the hall of the university there; at which the president and members of the congress attended, and other persons in public offices. The Chevalier de la Lucerne, minister plenipotentiary from the French king to the United States, was also present on the occasion. A charge was publicly addressed by the provost of the university to the students; in which he said, that he could not but congratulate them "on that auspicious day, which, amidst the confusions and desolations of war, beheld learning beginning to revive; and animated them with the pleasing prospect of seeing the sacred lamp of science burning with a still brighter flame, and scattering its invigorating

rays over the unexplored deserts of that extensive continent; until the whole world should be involved in the united blaze of knowledge, liberty, and religion. When he stretched his views forward (he said), and surveyed the rising glories of America, the enriching consequences of their determined struggle for liberty, the extensive fields of intellectual improvement and useful invention, in science and arts, in agriculture and commerce, in religion and government, through which the unfettered mind would range, with increasing delight, in quest of the undiscovered treasure which yet lay concealed in the animal, vegetable, and mineral, kingdoms of that new world; or in the other fertile sources of knowledge with which it abounded;—his heart swelled with the pleasing prospect, that the sons of that institution would distinguish themselves, in the different walks of life, by their literary contributions to the embellishment and increase of human happiness.

On the 10th of July, M. Ternay, with a fleet consisting of seven ships of the line, besides frigates, and a large body of French troops commanded by the Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island; and the following day six thousand men were landed there. A committee from the general assembly of Rhode Island was appointed to congratulate the French general upon his arrival: whereupon he returned an answer, in which he informed them, that the king his master had sent him to the assistance of his good and faithful allies the United States of America. At present, he said, he only brought over the vanguard of a much greater force destined for their aid; and the king had ordered him to assure them, that his whole power should be exerted for their support. He added, that the French troops were under the strictest discipline; and, acting under the orders of General Washington, would live with the Americans as their brethren.

A scheme was soon after formed, of making a combined attack with English ships and troops, under the command



command of Sir Henry Clinton and Admiral Arbuthnot, against the French fleet and troops at Rhode Island. Accordingly a considerable part of the troops at New York were embarked for that purpose. General Washington, having received information of this, passed the North River by a very rapid movement, and, with an army increased to twelve thousand men, proceeded with celerity towards King's Bridge, in order to attack New York; but learning that the British general had changed his intentions, and disembarked his troops on the 31st of the month, General Washington recrossed the river, and returned to his former station. Sir Henry Clinton and the admiral had agreed to relinquish their design of attacking the French and Americans at Rhode Island as impracticable for the present.

An unsuccessful attempt was also made about this time in the Jerseys by General Knyphausen, with seven thousand British troops under his command, to surprise the advanced posts of General Washington's army. They proceeded very rapidly towards Springfield, meeting little opposition till they came to the bridge there, which was very gallantly defended by one hundred and seventy of the continental troops, for fifteen minutes, against the British army: but they were at length obliged to give up so unequal a contest, with the loss of thirty-seven men. After securing this pass, the British troops marched into the place, and set fire to most of the houses. They also committed some other depredations in the Jerseys; but gained no laurels there, being obliged to return about the beginning of July without effecting any thing material.

But in South Carolina the royal arms were attended with more success. Earl Cornwallis, who commanded the British troops there, obtained a very signal victory over General Gates on the 16th of August. The action began at break of day, in a situation very advantageous for the British troops, but very unfavourable to the Americans. The latter were

much more numerous; but the ground on which both armies stood was narrowed by swamps on the right and left, so that the Americans could not properly avail themselves of their superior numbers. There seems to have been some want of generalship in Gates, in suffering himself to be surprised in so disadvantageous a position: but this circumstance was partly the effect of accident; for both armies set out with a design of attacking each other precisely at the same time, at ten the preceding evening, and met together before day-light at the place where the action happened. The attack was made by the British troops with great vigour, and in a few minutes the action was general along the whole line. It was at this time a dead calm, with a little haziness in the air, which, preventing the smoke from rising, occasioned so thick a darkness, that it was difficult to see the effect of a very heavy and well-supported fire on both sides. The British troops either kept up a constant fire, or made use of bayonets, as opportunities offered: and after an obstinate resistance during three quarters of an hour, threw the Americans into total confusion, and forced them to give way in all quarters. The continental troops appear to have behaved well, but the militia were soon broken, and left the former to oppose the whole force of the British troops. General Gates did all in his power to rally the militia, but without effect: the continentals retreated in some order; but the rout of the militia was so great, that the British cavalry are said to have continued the pursuit of them to the distance of twenty-two miles from the place where the action happened. The loss of the Americans was very considerable: about one thousand prisoners were taken, and more are said to have been killed and wounded, but the number is not very accurately ascertained. Seven pieces of brass cannon, a number of colours, and all the ammunition-wagons of the Americans, were also taken. Of the British troops, the killed and wounded amounted to two hundred

hundred and thirteen. Among the prisoners taken was Major-general Baron de Kalb, a Prussian officer in the American service, who was mortally wounded, having exhibited great gallantry in the course of the action, and received eleven wounds. The British troops by which this great victory was achieved did not much exceed two thousand, while the American army is said to have amounted to six thousand; of which, however, the greatest part was militia.

Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, who had greatly distinguished himself in this action, was detached the following day, with some cavalry and light infantry, amounting to about

three hundred and fifty men, to attack a corps of Americans under General Sumpter. He executed this service with great activity and military address. He procured good information of Sumpter's movements; and by forced and concealed marches came up with and surprised him in the middle of the day on the 18th, near the Catawba fords. He totally destroyed or dispersed his detachment, which consisted of seven hundred men, killing one hundred and fifty on the spot, and taking two pieces of brass cannon, three hundred prisoners, and forty-four wag-gons.

*(To be concluded in our next.)*

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### CONNUBIAL AFFECTION.

LADY Fanshawe wrote the Memoirs of her own Life, which contain many curious anecdotes of herself and her husband and of the great personages of the times.—The following beautiful picture of connubial affection blended with good sense and good-humour, might well be appended as an additional chapter to Xenophon's excellent Treatise on the Duties of a Wife.

“One day, in discourse, Lady — tacitly commended the knowledge of state-affairs, and that some women were very happy in a good understanding thereof, as my Lady A. Lady S. Mrs. T. and divers others; and that for it nobody was at first more capable than myself—That in the night she knew there came a post from Paris from the queen, [Henrietta-Maria, wife to Charles I.] and that she would be extremely glad to hear what the queen commanded the king in order to his affairs; saying, that, if I would ask my husband privately, he would tell me what he found in the packet, and I might tell her. I, that was young and innocent, and to that day never had in my mouth “What news?” began to think there was more in enquiring into business of public affairs

than I thought of, and that, being a fashionable thing, it would make me more beloved of my husband (if that had been possible) than I was. After my husband returned home from council, after welcoming him (as my custom ever was), he went with his hand full of papers into his study for an hour or more. I followed him.—He turned hastily, and said, What wouldst thou have, my life? I told him, I heard the prince had received a packet from the queen, and I guessed it that in his hand, and I desired to know what was in it. He smiling replied, My love, I will immediately come to thee; pray thee go, for I am very busy. When he came out of his closet, I resumed my suit; he kissed me, and talked of other things. At supper I would eat nothing. He (as usually) sat by me, and drank often to me (which was his custom), and was full of discourse to company that was at table. Going to bed I asked him again, and said, I could not believe he loved me, if he refused to tell me all he knew; but he said nothing, and stopped my mouth with kisses; so we went to bed.—I cried, and he went to sleep. Next morning very early (as his custom was) he called to rise, but began



began to discourse with me first, to which I made no reply. He rose, came to the other side of the bed, and kissed me, and drew the curtain softly, and went to court. When he came home to dinner, he presently came to me (as was usual); and, when I had him by the hand, I said, Thou dost not care to see me troubled. To which he (taking me in his arms) answered, My dearest soul, nothing upon earth can afflict me like that; and, when you asked me of my business, it was wholly out of my power satisfy thee; for my life and fortune shall be thine, and every thought of my heart in which the trust I am in may not be revealed; but my honour is mine own, which I cannot preserve if I communicate the prince's affairs; and, pray thee, with this answer rest satisfied. So great was his reason and goodness, that, upon consideration, it made my folly appear to be so vile, that from that day until the day of his death I never thought fit to ask him any business but what he communicated to me freely, in order to his estate or family."

The following exquisitely tender incident took place between Lady Fanshawe and her husband, in a voyage they made together from Galway to Malaga, in the spring of the year 1649.

"We pursued our voyage with prosperous winds, but a most tempestuous master, a Dutchman (which is enough to say), but truly, I think, the greatest beast I ever saw of his kind. When we had just passed the Straits, we saw coming towards us, with full sails, a Turkish galley well manned, and we believed we should be carried away slaves; for this man had so laden his ship with goods for Spain, that his guns were useless, tho' the ship carried sixty guns. He called for brandy, and after he had well drunken and all his men, which were near two hundred, he called for arms, and cleared the deck as well as he could, resolving to fight rather than lose his ship, which was worth 30,000*l*. This was sad for us passengers, but my husband bid us be sure to keep in the cabin, and not appear, which would make the Turks

think we were a man of war; but, if they saw women, they would take us for merchants, and board us. He went upon deck, and took a gun, a bandelier, and sword, expecting the arrival of the Turkish man of war. This beast-captain had locked me up in the cabin.—I knocked and called to no purpose, until the cabin-boy came and opened the door. I, all in tears, desired him to be so good as to give me his thrum cap and his tarred coat, which he did, and I gave him half-a-crown, and putting them on, and flinging away my night-clothes, I crept up softly, and stood upon the deck by my husband's side, as free from sickness and fear as, I confess, of discretion, but it was the effect of that passion which I could never master. By this time the two vessels were engaged in parley, and so well satisfied with speech and sight of each other's force, that the Turks man of war tacked about, and we continued our course. But, when your father saw it convenient to retreat, looking upon me, he blessed himself, and snatched me up in his arms, saying, Good God, that love can make this change! and, though he seemingly chid me, he would laugh at it as often as he remembered that voyage."

We shall present a few more extracts from these Memoirs, which it is to be observed are addressed by Lady Fanshawe to her only son.

"About July this year (1645), the plague increased so fast at Bristol, that the prince (Cha. II.) and all his retinue went to Barnstable (which is one of the finest towns I know in England), and your father and I went two days after the prince; for, during all the time I was in court, I never journeyed but either before him or after he was gone, nor ever saw him but at church; for it was not in those days the fashion for honest women (except they had business) to visit a man's court.

"On the 2d of September, 1651, was fought the battle of Worcester, when the king being missing, and I hearing nothing of your father being dead or alive for three days, it is inexpressible in what affliction I was. I neither ate nor slept, but trembled  
at

at every motion I heard, expecting the fatal news, which at last came, and mentioned that your father was a prisoner. Then with some hope I went to London, to find out my husband, wheresoever he was carried. On my coming to London, I met a messenger from him with a letter, which advised me of his condition, and told me he was very civilly treated. I said little more but that I should be in some room at Charing-cross, where he had a promise from his keeper, that he should rest in my company at dinner-time. This was meant as a very great favour to him. I expected him with impatience, and, on the day appointed, provided a dinner and a room, as I was ordered, in which I was with my father, and some more of my friends, where we saw hundreds of poor soldiers, both English and Scotch, march all naked on foot, and many on horseback. At last came the captain and two soldiers with your father, who was very cheerful in appearance. After he had spoken to me, and saluted me and his friends, he said, Pray let us not lose time, for I know not how little I have to spare. This is the chance of war:—Nothing venture nothing have: and so let us sit down, and be merry whilst we may. Then taking my hand, and kissing me, he said, Cease weeping, no other thing upon earth can move me: remember we are all at God's disposal. Then he told us how kind the captain had been to him, and that the people as he passed offered him money, and brought him good things: and that particularly Lady Denham, at Boston-house, would have given him all the money she had in the house; but he returned her thanks, and told her, that he had so ill kept his own, that he would not tempt his governor with more; but that if she would give him a shirt or two, and a few handkerchiefs, he would keep them as long as he could for her sake. She fetched him some shifts of her own, and some handkerchiefs, saying, that she was ashamed to give them to him, but, having none of her son's shirts at home, she desired him to wear them. Thus passed the time till or-

ders came to carry my husband to Whitehall, where, in a little room (yet standing in the Bowling-green,) he was kept prisoner without the speech of any (so far as they knew) for ten weeks, and in expectation of death. They then examined him, and at last he grew so ill in health, by the cold and hard marches he had undergone, and being pent up in a room close and small, that the scurvy brought him down almost to death's door. During the time of his imprisonment, I failed not, constantly, when the clock struck four in the morning, to go with a dark-lantern in my hand, all alone and on foot, from my lodgings in Chancery-lane, at my cousin Young's, to Whitehall, by the entry that went out of King's-street into the Bowling-green. There I would go under his window, and call him softly. He, excepting the first time, never afterwards failed to put out his head at the first call. Thus we talked together, and sometimes I was so wet with rain that it went in at my neck, and out at my heels. My husband directed me how to make my addresses for his delivery to the General Cromwell, who had a great respect for your father, and would have bought him off to his service upon any terms.

"Being one day to solicit the general for my husband's liberty, he bade me bring the next day a certificate from his physician that he was really ill. I immediately went to Dr. B——, who happened to be physician to Cromwell and to our own family, who gave me a very favourable one in behalf of my husband. I delivered it into the council-chamber, at three o'clock in the afternoon, into the general's own hand, as he commanded me; and he himself moved in the council, that as they could make no use of the imprisonment of your father, with respect to any intelligence they wanted to procure from him, that he might have his liberty, upon giving bail for four thousand pounds, to take a course of physic, in consequence of the ill state of his health. Many spoke against this; but mostly Sir Henry Vane, who said, that, for all he knew, my husband would



would be instrumental to hang all them that sat there, if ever he had an opportunity: but, if he had liberty for a time, he might take the engagement before he quitted his confinement. Upon which Cromwell replied, I never knew that the engagement was a remedy against the scurbut. The rest, hearing the general speak thus, thought that it would oblige him, and so they let him out upon bail.

"We got leave, in August 1656, to go to the Bath, from whence we returned to the priory of Ware in Hertfordshire. This place we accounted happy to us, because here in October we heard the news of Cromwell's death; on which my husband began to hope that he should get loose from the fetters in which he had been kept seven years. Going then to London, with my lord Philip earl of Pembroke, he lamented the case of his bond to him, who was his old and constant friend, who told him, that, if he would dine with him the next day, he would give him some account of that business. The next day he told him, I must send my eldest son into France, Mr. Fanshawe; and you will not, I hope, take it ill, if I desire your company and care of him for one year. I will procure you your bond within this week. My husband was rejoiced to get loose upon any terms that were innocent; so having seen the bond cancelled, he went to Paris, and wrote to Lord Clarendon to tell him, that he was again a free man, and to desire him to acquaint his majesty (Charles II.) with this, and that he was ready to obey his commands."

In 1663, after the restoration, Lady Fanshawe attended her husband to Spain, when he went to that country in a public situation; and where they were both treated with that respect to which their talents and their virtues had so highly intitled them.

The thread of her narration is thus resumed on the following very melancholy event:

"On the 15th of June 1666, my husband was taken sick with a disorder like unto an ague, but it turned to a malignant inward fever, of which he

lay ill until the twenty-sixth of the same month, and then departed this life, fifteen days before his intended journey for England.

"The next day my husband was embalmed. On the fifth of July, the Queen-Mother of Spain sent the master of the ceremonies of her court to me, to invite me to stay with all my children at her court, promising me a pension of thirty thousand ducats a-year, and to provide for my children, if they would quit our religion and become Roman Catholics. I answered, that I humbly thanked her majesty for her great grace and favour, which I should ever esteem, and pay with my services, as far as I was able, all the days of my life:—that with respect to the changing of my religion, I desired her majesty to believe, that I would not quit the faith in which I had been born and bred, and in which God had been pleased to try me for many years, in the greatest troubles our nation had ever seen: and that I do believe and hope, that in the profession of my own religion God would hear my prayers to reward her majesty and all the princes of her royal family for this so great favour, which her majesty was pleased to offer me in my greatest of all afflictions.

"In 1667 I took a house in Holborn-row, Lincoln's-inn-fields. Here, in this year, I only spent my time in lamentations and dear remembrance of my past happiness and fortune; and, though I had great graces and favours from the king and queen (Charles II. and his queen) and the whole court, yet I found at the present no relief. I often reflected, into how many errors and miscarriages the fall from the happy estate in which I had been would throw me; and, as it is hard for the rider to quit his horse in his full career, so I found myself at a loss, that hindered me from settling myself suddenly in a narrow compass, tho' my small fortune required it. But I resolved to hold fast by God, until I should in some measure digest my affliction. Sometimes I thought to quit the world, as a sacrifice to your father's memory, and to shut myself

up in a house for ever from all people; but in consideration of my children, who were all young and unprovided for, being wholly left to my care and disposal, I resolved to suffer the storms and blows of fortune as long as it should please God.

"In July of the same year, I waited on the king, and delivered his majesty my whole accounts. He was pleased to receive me very graciously, and to promise me that they should be paid, and likewise that he would take care of me and of mine.

"I presented the King, Queen, Duke of York, and Duke of Cambridge, with two dozen of amber skins, and six dozen of gloves. I likewise presented my Lord Arlington with amber skins and chocolate, and a great picture, a copy of Titian, to the value of one hundred pounds; and I made presents to Sir William Coventry and several other persons then in office. I spent my time in soliciting and petitioning my Lord Southampton for the present dispatch of my accounts, which did pass the secretary, the Lord Arlington; and within two months I got a privy seal for my money, without either fee or present which I could fasten on my lord. Now I thought myself happy,

and feared nothing less than further trouble. God, that only knows what is to come, so disposed my fortune, that, losing that good man and friend Lord Southampton, my money (which was 5600*l.*) was not paid me until December 1669, notwithstanding I had exchequer tallies for it above two years before. This was above two thousand pounds loss to me. Besides, these commissioners, by the instigation of one of their fellow commissioners, (my Lord Shaftesbury, the worst of men,) persuaded them that I should pay for the embassy plate, for which I paid two thousand pounds; and so maliciously did he oppress me, as if he hoped in me to destroy that whole spark of honesty and innocence which he hates.

"I bought ground in St. Mary's chapel in Ware church of the Bishop of London; and there I made a vault for my husband's body, in which I had him laid by most of the same persons who had laid him before in my father's vault in Hertford church, where he was deposited until I could make this vault and monument, which cost me two hundred pounds; and where, if it pleases God, I intend to lie myself."

#### AFFECTING INCIDENTS IN THE REVOLUTIONARY PRISONS OF FRANCE.

*(Concluded from page 376.)*

FOR a long time the Jacobins had demanded the trial of Marie Antoinette, whose existence they declared endangered that of the republic. She was accordingly arraigned for having committed a series of crimes, which in the language of the indictment comprehended not merely counter-revolutionary projects, but all the enormities of the Messalinas, Brune-hauts, Fredegondes, and Medicis. A curious account of the evidence in support of these charges, and the effect which her behaviour produced upon Robespierre, is given by Vilate, a young man of the revolutionary tribunal. The scene passed during the trial, at a tavern near the Thuilleries,

where he was invited to dine with Robespierre, Barrere, and St. Just. "Seated around the table," he says, "in a close and retired room, they asked me to give them some leading features of the evidence on the trial of the queen. I did not forget that expostulation of insulted nature, when, Hebert accusing Antoinette of having committed the most shocking crime, she turned with dignity towards the audience, and said, "I appeal to the conscience and feelings of every mother present to declare if there be one among them who does not shudder at the idea of such horrors." Robespierre, struck with this answer as by an electrical stroke, broke his plate with



with his fork. "That blockhead Herbert!" cried he, "as if it were not enough that she was really a Messalina, he must make her an Agrippina also, and furnish her with the triumph of exciting the sympathy of the public in her last moments."

Marie Antoinette made no defence, and called no witnesses, alledging that no positive fact had been produced against her. She had preserved an uniform behaviour during the whole of her trial, except when a starting tear accompanied her answer to Herbert. She was condemned about four in the morning, and heard her sentence with composure. But her firmness forsook her on the way from the court to her dungeon—she burst into tears; when, as if ashamed of this weakness, she observed to her guards, that, though she wept at that moment, they should see her go to the scaffold without shedding a tear.

In her way to execution, where she was taken after the accustomed manner in a cart, with her hands tied behind her, she paid little attention to the priest who attended her, and still less to the surrounding multitude. Her eyes, though bent on vacancy, did not conceal the emotion that was labouring at her heart—her cheeks were sometimes in a singular manner streaked with red, and sometimes overspread with deadly paleness; but her general look was that of indignant sorrow. She reached the place of execution about noon; and, when she turned her eyes towards the gardens and the palace, she became visibly agitated. She ascended the scaffold with precipitation, and her head was in a moment held up to the people by the executioner.

When Madame de Roland, one of the most accomplished women in France, and wife of Roland, the virtuous minister of the interior department, was judged to death by the revolutionary tribunal, after hearing her sentence she said, "*Vous me jugez digne de partager le sort des grands hommes que vous avez assassinés. Je tâcherai de porter à l'échaffaud le courage qu'ils y ont montré.*" "You think me worthy, then, of sharing the fate of those great men whom you have assassinated."

I will endeavour to go to the scaffold with the courage which they displayed."

On the day of her trial she dressed herself in white: her long dark hair flowed loosely to her waist, and her figure would have softened any hearts less ferocious than those of her judges. On her way to the scaffold she was not only composed, but sometimes assumed an air of gaiety, in order to encourage a person who was condemned to die at the same time, but who was not armed with the same fortitude.

When more than one person is led at the same time to execution, since they can suffer only in succession, those who are reserved to the last are condemned to feel multiplied deaths at the sound of the falling instrument, and the sight of the bloody scaffold. To be the first victim was therefore considered as a privilege, and had been allowed to Madame de Roland as a woman. But, when she observed the dismay of her companion, she said to him, "*Allez le premier: que je vous épargne au moins la douleur de voir couler mon sang.*" "Go first: let me at least spare you the pain of seeing my blood shed." She then turned to the executioner, and begged that this sad indulgence might be granted to her fellow-sufferer. The executioner told her that he had received orders that she should perish first. "But you cannot, I am sure," said she with a smile, "refuse the last request of a lady." The executioner complied with her demand. When she mounted the scaffold, and was tied to the fatal plank, she lifted up her eyes to the statue of liberty, near which the guillotine was placed, and exclaimed, "*Ah liberté, comme on t'a jouée!*" "Ah liberty! how hast thou been sported with!" The next moment she perished. But her name will be recorded in the annals of history, as one of those illustrious women whose superior attainments seem fitted to exalt her sex in the scale of being.

She had predicted that her husband would not survive her loss, and her prediction was fulfilled. Roland, who had concealed himself

till this period, no sooner heard the fate of his wife, whose influence over his mind had often been a subject of reproach among his enemies, than, feeling that life was no longer worth possessing, he put an end to his existence. His body was found in a wood near the high road between Paris and Reuen: the papers which were in his pocket-book were sent to the committee of general safety, and have never seen the light. His unhappy daughter found an asylum with an old friend of her proscribed parents, who had the courage to receive her at a period when it was imminently dangerous to afford her protection.

If France, during the unrelenting tyranny of Robespierre, exhibited unexampled crimes, it was also the scene of extraordinary virtue; of the most affecting instances of magnanimity and kindness. Of this nature was the conduct of a young man, who, being a prisoner with his brother, happened to be present when the names of the victims were called over, who were summoned to appear the next day before the sanguinary tribunal. The young man found the name of his brother, who at that moment was absent, upon the fatal list. He paused only an instant to reflect, that the life of a father of a large family was of more value than his own: he answered the call, surrendered himself to the officer, and was executed in his brother's stead. A father made the same sacrifice for his son; for the tribunal was so negligent of forms, that it was not difficult to deceive its vigilance.

The increasing horrors which every day produced, had at length the effect of extinguishing in every heart the love of life, that sentiment which clings so fast to our nature. To die, and get beyond the reach of oppression, appeared a privilege; and perhaps nothing appalled the souls of the tyrants so much as that serenity with which their victims went to execution. The page of history has held up to the admiration of succeeding ages, those philosophers who have met death with fortitude. But

had they been led among the victims of Robespierre to execution, they would have found themselves, in this respect, undistinguished from the crowd. They would have seen persons of each sex, of all ages, and all conditions, looking upon death with a contempt equal to their own. Socrates expiring surrounded by his friends, or Seneca or Lucan sinking gently into death, have perhaps less claim to admiration than those blooming beauties, who in all the first freshness of youth, in the very spring of life, submitted to the stroke of the executioner with placid smiles on their countenances, and looked like angels in their flight to heaven.

Among the victims of the tyrants, the women have been peculiarly distinguished for their admirable firmness in death. Perhaps this arose from the superior sensibility which belongs to the female mind, and which made it feel that it was less terrible to die, than to survive the objects of its tenderness. When the general who commanded at Longwy on its surrender to the Prussians was condemned to die, his wife, a beautiful young woman of four and twenty years of age, who heard the sentence pronounced, cried out in a tone of despair, "Vive le roi!" The inhuman tribunal, instead of attributing her conduct to distraction, condemned her to die. Her husband, when he was placed in the cart, was filled with astonishment and anguish when he saw his beloved wife led towards it. The people, shocked at the spectacle, followed her to the scaffold, crying, "*Elle n'a pas mérité la mort.*" "She does not deserve death." "*Mes amis,*" said she, "*c'est ma faute; j'ai voulu périr avec mon mari.*" "My friends, it is my own fault; I was resolved to perish with my husband."

The fury of these implacable monsters seemed directed with peculiar virulence against that sex, whose weakness man was destined by nature to support. The scaffold was every day bathed with the blood of women. Some who had been condemned to die, but had been respited on account of their pregnancy, were dragged



ged to death immediately after their delivery, in that state of weakness which savages would have respected. One unfortunate woman, the wife of a peasant, had been brought to Paris, with nineteen other women of the same class, and condemned to die with her companions. She heard her sentence without emotion; but when they came to carry her to execution, and take away the infant who was hanging at her breast, and receiving that nourishment of which death was so soon to dry up the source, she rent the air with her cries, with the strong shriek of instinctive affection, the piercing throes of maternal tenderness—But in vain! the infant was torn from the bosom that cherished it, and the agonies of the unfortunate mother found respite in death.

Fourteen young girls of Verdun, who had danced at a ball given by the Prussians, were led to the scaffold together, and looked like nymphs adorned for a festival. Sometimes whole generations were swept away at one moment; and the tribunal exhibited many a family-piece, which has almost broken the heart of humanity. Malesherbes, the counsel of Louis the XVI. was condemned to die, at eighty years of age, with his daughter and son-in-law, his grand-daughter and grand-son.

His daughter seemed to have lost sight of every earthly object but her venerable parent; she embraced him a thousand times on the way to execution; bathed his face with her tears; and when the minister of death dragged her from him, forgetting that the next moment put an end to her own, she exclaimed, "Wretch are you going to murder my father?"

These proscribed families seemed to find the sweetest source of consolation in dying together, and to consider the momentary passage which they were going to make, as so much the less painful, since they should undergo no separation, but enter at the same instant into another state of existence. A young lady, the former marchioness of Bois-Berenger, was imprisoned in the Luxembourg with her whole family. When her father,

mother, and younger sister, received their act of accusation, and she found herself alone exempted, she shed a flood of tears; her heart was overwhelmed with anguish. "You will die without me," she cried; "I am condemned to survive you; we shall not perish together!" While she abandoned herself to despair, her act of accusation arrived: a ray of transport was instantly diffused over her countenance, she flew into the arms of her parents, and embraced them. "My dear mother," she exclaimed, "we shall die together!" When the family was transferred to the Conciergerie, she never left her mother a moment, but watched over her with unwearied tenderness; and, while she tried to sooth her sufferings by her filial endearments, she endeavoured to inspire her with courage by the example of her own heroic fortitude. It was the picture of a sort of Roman charity. The unfortunate mother was mute, and her whole soul seemed petrified with horror. She seemed another Niobe. Her admirable daughter died with the most noble resolution.

Mademoiselle Malesi, her younger sister, when condemned to die, said to her father with naïveté, "*Je me ferrerai tant contre vous, mon bon pere, vous qui êtes si honnête homme, que Dieu me laissera passer malgré mes péchés.*" "I will cling so fast to you, my dear father, you, who are so good, that God will suffer me to pass in spite of my transgressions."

Among the many sufferers under the tyranny of Robespierre, were men of the first rank in science and literature. La Voisier, the celebrated chymist, was put to death with the other farmers-general. He requested a fortnight's respite to enable him to complete a philosophical experiment. The Vandals had no time to pause in their career of blood for the pursuits of philosophy, and sent him away, observing that the republic had no longer any need of chymists. Chamfort, a member of the French academy, and an enthusiastic advocate for the revolution, with feelings too keen to bear the horrors by which so noble a cause had been stained,

stained, hid them from his sight by a voluntary death. La Harpe was thrown into prison, and was destined to perish on the scaffold. The author of the younger Anacharsis, notwithstanding his advanced age, was the object of continual persecution. Florian, who was imprisoned, and condemned to see his dearest friends perish, had not sufficient fortitude to sustain such trials. His charming pen had displayed the most soothing images of happiness and virtue; and when he beheld around him only misery and crimes, his disordered imagination hastened his death. Vicq d'Azyr died of a broken heart. Bailly, the first mayor of Paris, whose astronomical researches have placed him in the highest rank of science, was murdered with circumstances of particular aggravation. He was to have been executed in the Champ de Mars; but, from the caprice of the sanguinary mob, he was compelled to wait two or three hours at the place of execution, while the scaffold was removed to a field adjoining, where he stood drenched in rain, in the midst of winter, and, which was more difficult to bear than the "pelting of pitiless storm," exposed to the insults and reproaches of an execrable set of wretches who usually attended these horrid spectacles. The red flag was burned before his eyes, and he was compelled to set fire to the pile that consumed it, while the ruffians plunged his head into the smoke for their farther amusement. He submitted to all that was inflicted on him with the serenity of a philosopher, and only requested with mildness that his sufferings might be terminated.

One of the barbarians by whom he was tormented said to him, in a tone of savage mockery, "*Tu trembles, Bailly.*" "*You tremble, Bailly.*" "*Mon ami, c'est de froid.*" "It is with cold, my friend," replied the sage. At length, after having made him drink the cup of bitterness to the very dregs, they permitted him to die.

Perhaps you may exclaim, as the Roman poet did with respect to religion, "Of so many evils could liberty have been the cause!" It is, alas! the condition of our uninstructed nature, that nations like individuals should acquire wisdom only in the school of experience; and though the page of history, which according to Lord Bolingbroke is "philosophy teaching by example," be opened before us, we are too presumptuous, or too careless, to heed or apply the lesson. I need not make use of any reasoning to convince you that liberty is innocent of the outrages committed under its borrowed sanction; for though we might from some momentary impulse blaspheme its name, as Lucretius did that of religion, we must be persuaded that neither religion nor liberty is chargeable with the crimes committed by tyranny or superstition. As no weeds are more pernicious than those which arise in that soil from which good fruit alone should have sprung, so no crimes have exceeded those which the tyrant and the fanatic have committed in the name of freedom, the guardian angel of the happiness of mankind, and in that of the Being "whose tender mercies are over all his works."

#### MR. DUNCKERLEY.

SOME particulars relative to the life of this gentleman have been found among his papers, in his own hand writing, by his executors, who have published them in refutation of the many idle tales circulated as to his birth; and the following is the account he gives of that event, and of the first intimation he received of the royal blood flowing in his veins.

January 9, 1760, soon after my return from the siege of Quebec, I received an account of my mother's death, and, having obtained permission from my captain to be absent from duty, I went to London and attended her funeral. Among the very few that I invited to this ceremony was Mrs. Pinkney, who had been many years a neighbour to my mother.



ther in Somerset-house. On our return from the burial, she desired I would call on her the next day, (and not bring my wife with me,) having something of consequence to tell me. I waited on her accordingly, and the following is the substance of what she related to me, as I took it in writing:

"Mary Dunckerly, being dangerously ill with the gout in her stomach, (January 2, 1760,) and believing it will be her death, is desirous, at the request of her friend Mrs. Pinkney, that the following account be made known to her son in the most secret manner, and to none but him:

"At the latter end of November, 1723, Mr. Dunckerley went to Chatsworth, in Derbyshire, on some business for the Duke of Devonshire, and did not return till the May following. At Christmas I went to see Mrs. Meekin, at Lady Ranelagh's. Mr. L——y happened to come there, and paid me the greatest respect, and hinted that I stood in my own light, or I might be the happiest woman in England. I knew his meaning, but made no reply, and went back to Somerset-house the next day. A fortnight after, I had an invitation to Lady Ranelagh's, and her coach was sent for me. I was surprized to find Mr. L——y there again. He handed me from the coach to the parlour, where, to my future unhappiness, I found the Prince of Wales, whom I had too well known before my unhappy marriage. At his request (for I could deny him nothing) I stayed several days, during which time he made me five visits; and on Candlemas-day I went home.

"Soon after I found myself sick and breeding, and was resolved to make an end of my life. I was taken very ill. Lady Stanley came to see me, but I could not let her know my disorder. Mrs. Meekin came to see me, and I told her the consequence of what had happened. The next day she came again, and brought me bank bills to the amount of 50*l.* inclosed in a cover from Mr. Lumley, acquainting me it was by the prince's command. She said Lady Ranelagh

was coming to see me, and in less than an hour her ladyship came. They advised me to go into the country, and said a house was taken for me at Richmond; but I was obstinate, and said I would not go out of the house till I was brought to bed. I desired that they would never let the Prince of Wales or Mr. L. know that I was with child, and I never found they did. Dr. Mead attended me; he ordered me to be bled, and in two days I could sit up."

"Mr. Dunckerly came from Chatsworth in May, and seemed not displeased to find me with child. I disdained to deceive him, and told him what had happened. He commended my conduct with so much joy, that I could not help despising his meanness; and his barbarous behaviour to me in the last month of my time was what I always repented, when he threw a cat in my face, and swore he would mark the bastard. Our separation soon followed after my delivery, and he kept the secret on his own account; for he had two places, and several considerable advantages, at the price of my folly.

"My son might have been known to his royal father, and I might have lived in as elegant a manner as Mrs. H. or Miss B. but my dear mother reclaimed me from so criminal a passion, and dread of public shame prevented me making it known."

"It farther appears from Mr. Dunckerly's account, that his mother was the daughter of a physician (Dr. Bolneft), and lived as a companion with a lady of fashion, when George the Second (then Prince of Wales) became acquainted with and enamoured of her; and that that lady, discovering they were too intimate, communicated the affair to Mrs. Bolneft, and contrived the unhappy marriage with Mr. Dunckerly, (who was a dependant on the Devonshire family), with whom they thought she would be entirely removed from the prince; but his highness, discovering her, set his emissaries to persuade her husband to barter away his own and his wife's honour, and bring about the interview above related. Mrs. D's sense of the impropriety of her  
amour

amour with the prince, and her aversion to its continuance, occasioned her to oppose the making her son's birth known to him. He was therefore quite unknown to his real father; but, being introduced to his present

majesty, every enquiry was made, and his claims were thought to be so well founded, that his majesty ordered him a pension of 100l. per ann. from the privy purse, which was afterwards increased to 300l.

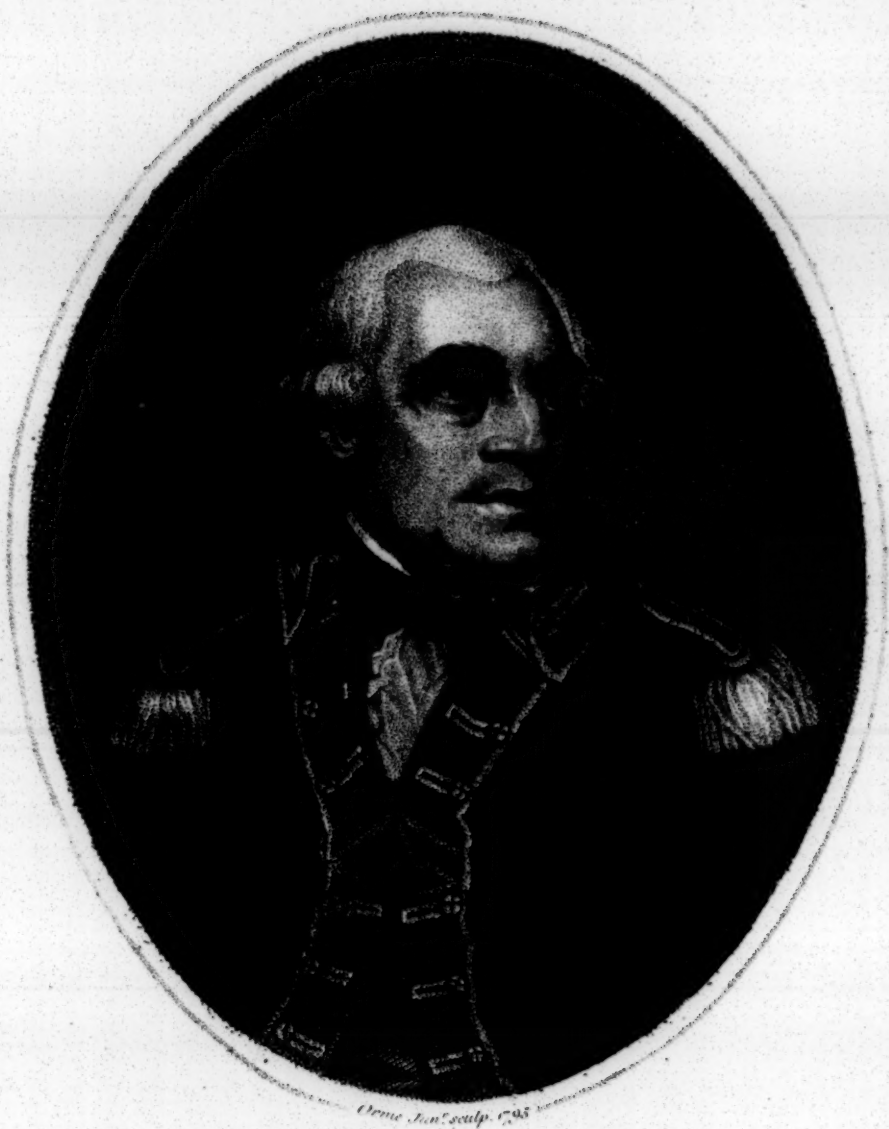
#### ANECDOTES OF FIELD-MARSHAL FREYTAG.

**T**HE present Field-marshal Freytag in his majesty's electoral service, after having been page of honour to the late king, entered his military profession as an ensign of a regiment of foot in the year 1736, and served in the ensuing war in the low countries, in 1743 and the following years, under the Duke of Cumberland. He was present in the three severe battles fought during it, and wounded as a lieutenant of grenadiers in that of Fontenoi. In the year 1757, he was, as an officer of particular merit, attained both in the preceding war and in the studious attention to his profession in time of peace, distinguished by the avocation to the command of a corps of rangers, raised at that time in his majesty's German dominions. This corps consisted of people that had been brought up to a particular skill in the use of the rifle, which as a weapon of the greatest utility has been introduced since in all the German armies. General Freytag's rangers were divided into horse and foot, and from their valour and skill as marksmen dreaded by the French from the beginning of their being employed in the army. They did the most signal services at Emsdorff, in routing the French and contributing to the glorious success of the day, where the British 15th light dragoons obtained its first laurels by making six French battalions prisoners. In that action General Freytag was severely wounded by a shot. He had, in the sequel of the war, the good fortune to surprise repeatedly divers light bodies of French troops, and to make them prisoners, without ever experiencing such disgrace himself. After the peace of 1763 he raised two regiments of light dragoons on the electorate; the one being the Queen's, and the other the Prince of

Wales's, which have both served with distinction in the present war. When on the continent Great Britain took an active part, Field-marshal Freytag had the command of the Hanoverian troops employed in the British service. In the expedition against Dunkirk, the corps destined to cover the operations of the besieging army was also commanded by him, in which intricate position he was attacked by a far superior force, which, after an engagement from day-break till night, succeeded to dislodge his troops upon his left, not one cartridge of ammunition being more in their power for continuing the defence. That post was the only point by which the retreat of Field-marshal Freytag's corps could take place; and when, in the night after the action, the first column reached a place called Rexpoed, they found it occupied by the enemy. It happened, that, the night being stormy and pitch-dark, Field-marshal Freytag, together with his Royal Highness Prince Adolphus and a small escort, upon approaching the place, pushed upon a numerous French patrol that engaged them directly. Field-marshal Freytag was cut from his horse, and as a prisoner conducted to the house of the French general. Prince Adolphus had two wounds, but was happily preserved from the ill fate of captivity. Field-marshal Freytag was soon liberated again by his own troops, who attacked and carried the place before the French could think of removing Field-marshal Freytag from the place of his detention. Considered as a man endowed with the virtues of loyalty for his sovereign and of unremitting zeal for the support of the public good, he may have his equal, but cannot be left behind in his good and honourable intentions.

SELECT





FIELD-MARSHALL FREYTAG.

*Published as she is, by direct Decr. 1. 1795.*





## SELECT POETRY.

## ODE FOR THE NEW YEAR, 1796.

BY H. J. PYE, ESQ. POET LAUREAT.

*Performed January 18, the Queen's Birth-day.*

WHERE is immortal Virtue's meed,  
Th' unfading wreath of true renown  
Best recompence by Heaven decreed  
For all the cares that wait a Crown ;  
If Industry with anxious zeal,  
Still watchful o'er the public weal,  
If equal Justice' awful arm,  
Temper'd by Mercy's seraph charm,  
Are ineffectual to alluage  
Remorseless Faction's harpy rage ;  
But the fell Dæmons urg'd by Hell's behest  
Threaten with frantic arm the Royal Pa-  
triot's breast ?

Yet not, Imperial George, at thee  
Was the rude bolt of Malice sped,  
Even Fiends that crown with reverence see  
When Virtue consecrates th' anointed head.  
No—At thy bosom's fondest claim,  
Thy Britain's peace, their shafts they aim;  
Pale Envy, while o'er half the world  
War's bloody banners are unfurl'd,  
Beholds our coasts from ravage free,  
Protected by the guardian sea,  
Where Commerce spreads her golden stores  
Where fleets waft triumph to our shores ;  
She saw, and, sick'ning at the sight,  
Wish'd the fair prospects of our hopes to  
blight,  
Sought out the object of our dearest care,  
Found where we most could feel, and tried  
to wound us there.

The broken shaft that coward Malice rear'd  
Shall to thy fame eternal lustre give,  
Inscribe on Hist'ry's Page thy Name rever'd  
And bid it there with endless blazon live.  
For there our sons remotest race  
In deathless characters shall trace,  
How Britain's baffled Foes proclaim'd  
their hate,  
And deem'd her Monarch's Life the bul-  
work of the State.

Now strike a livelier chord—This happy  
day,  
Selected from the circling year,  
To celebrate a Name to Britain dear,  
From Britain's sons demands a festive lay.  
Mild Sov'reign of our Monarch's soul,  
Whose eye's meek radiance can controul  
The pow'rs of Care, and grace a Throne,  
With each calm joy to life domestic known  
Propitious Heav'n has o'er thy head  
Blossoms of richer fragrance shed  
Than all the assiduous Muse can bring,  
Cull'd from the honey'd stores of Spring.

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For see, amid wild Winter's hours  
A bud its silken folds display,  
Sweeter than all the chalic'd flowers  
That crown thy own ambrosial May.  
O may thy smiles, blest Infant, prove  
Omens of Concord and of Love,  
Bid the loud strains of martial triumph  
cease,  
And tune to softer mood the warbling  
reed of Peace !

THE SAILOR'S JOURNAL.  
*From Dibdin's "WILL OF THE WISP."*

'T WAS post meridian half past four,  
By signal I from Nancy parted ;  
At six she linger'd on the shore,  
With uplift hands and broken-hearted ;  
At sev'n, while taugthning the fore-stay,  
I saw her faint, or else 'twas fancy ;  
At eight we all got under way,  
And bade a long adieu to Nancy.  
Night came, and now eight bells had rung,  
When careless sailors, ever cheery.  
On the mid-watch so jovial sung,  
With tempers labour cannot weary.  
I little to their mirth inclin'd,  
While tender thoughts rush'd on my  
fancy,  
And my warm sighs increas'd the wind,  
Look'd on the moon, and thought on  
Nancy.

And now arriv'd that jovial night  
When ev'ry true-bred tar carouses,  
When o'er the grog all hands delight  
To toast their sweethearts and their  
spouses.  
Round went the can, the mirth, the glee,  
While tender wishes fill'd each fancy ;  
And, when in turn it came to me,  
I heav'd a sigh, and toasted Nancy.

Next morn a storm came on at four ;  
At six the elements in motion  
Plung'd me and three poor sailors more  
Headlong into the foaming ocean.  
Poor wretches, they soon found their  
graves ;  
For me, it may be only fancy,  
But love seem'd to forbid the waves  
To snatch me from the arms of Nancy.

Scarce the foul hurricane was clear'd  
Scarce winds and waves had ceas'd to  
rattle,  
When a bold enemy appear'd  
And dauntless we prepar'd for battle.  
And now, while some lov'd friend or wife  
Like lightning rush'd on ev'ry fancy,  
To Providence I trusted life,  
Put up a prayer, and thought on Nancy.

3 G

At

At last, 'twas in the month of May,  
The crew, it being lovely weather,  
At three A. M. discover'd day  
And England's chalky cliffs together.  
At sev'n up channel how we bore,  
While hopes and fears possess'd my  
fancy;  
At twelve I gaily jump'd on-shore,  
And to my throbbing heart press'd  
Nancy.

SONNET TO FANCY.  
BY THE NOTTINGHAMSHIRE BARD.

ORB of the day, in whose full train at-  
tends  
The round of business, and of life the toil,  
Go print the cheek of Evening with a  
smile!  
For I do love, what time thy lamp de-  
scends,  
From anxious cares to find a sweet re-  
lease,  
And fold my eyelids in the veil of peace.  
Yet 'tis not slumber, nor the lapse of time,  
Which then runs smoothly, nor the silver  
light,  
When Cynthia, lovely regent of the wave,  
Peeps thro' the muffled curtains of the  
night,  
That bids my soul the hour of Evening  
crave:  
I woo thee, Fancy, who in dreams sub-  
lime  
Feed'st Love with raptures and the Muse  
with Song;  
For I to Love and to the Muse belong.

CONTENTMENT.

BENEATH my lowly roof I'll live at ease  
Unknown to avarice and noisome  
glee;  
There calmly spend the circling year in  
peace,  
Serene Contentment, while I dwell  
with thee.  
On Alpine hills behold the sun-burnt hind,  
Remote from care, amid his flock re-  
pose,  
While pleasing dreams of Fancy sooth his  
mind  
And gentle Zephyrus around him  
blows.

No thought ambitious fires his tranquil  
soul,  
Nor parsimonious lust of wealth is there:  
The gifts of nature all these thoughts  
controul,  
And for heaven's joys his virtuous mind  
prepare.  
'Tis mild Contentment that becalms his  
breast.  
O then beneath thy shade with Virtue  
let me rest!

EPILOGUE

To the new COMEDY OF SPECULATION:

THE Drama done, permit us now to say  
Something about—or not about—the  
play.

Good subjectours! rare times! when *Spe-  
culation*

Engrosses every subject of the nation.

To serve the state—Jews, Gentiles, all are  
willing,

And for the Omnium venture their last  
shilling:

Nay, some subscribe their thousands to  
the Loan,

Without a single shilling of their own.

Be this their Speculation; I profess

To speculate in one thing only—Dress:

Shew me your garments, Gents and La-  
dies fair,

I'll tell you whence you came, and who  
you are;

But, sportsman like, to hit the game  
I'll try,

Charge, prime, present my glass, and cock  
my eye.

What a fine *harvest* this gay season yields,  
Some female heads appear like *stubble fields*!

Who now of threaten'd famine dare com-  
plain,

When every female forehead teems with  
*grain*?

See how the *wheat-sheaves* nod amid the  
plumes;

Our *barns* are now transferr'd to draw-  
ing-rooms;

While husbands who delight in active lives,  
To fill their *granaries* may *thrash* their  
wives.

Nor wives alone prolific, notice draw,

Old maids, and young ones, all are in the  
*straw*.

That damsel wrapt in shawls, who looks  
so blue,

Is a return from India—*things won't do*.

That market's up, she could not change  
her name,

No *Ramramrow's* nor *Yangwhangwoppas*  
came;

“Bad speculation, Bet, so far to roam,

Black-legs go out, and jail-birds now  
come home.”

That stripling there, all trowfers and cravat

No body and no chin, is call'd a *flat*:

And he beside him, in the trait cut frock,

Button'd before, behind a square-cut dock,

Is, I would bet, nor fear to be a loser,

Either a man of fashion or a bruiser.

A man of fashion—nothing but a *quizz*—

I'll shew you what a man of fashion is.

With back to fire, slouch'd hat, and vul-  
gar slang,

He charms his mistress with this sweet  
harangue:

“What



"What, lovely charming Kitty!--how d'ye do?  
Come t' see my puppy?"—"No, Harry, to see you."  
"You're vastly welcome; you shall see my stud,  
And ride my poney"—"Harry, you're too good."  
"Zounds, how it freezes; *Fly* was *Sancho's* fire;  
Miss, would you see?"—"Harry, I'd wish to see the fire."  
That's your true breeding, that's your flaming lover;  
The fair may freeze, but he is *warm all over*.  
We're an odd medley, you must needs confess,  
Strange in our manners, stranger in our drefs;  
Whim is the word—droll pantomimic age,  
With true tip-tops of taste grotesque's the rage;  
Beaux with short waists, and small clothes close confin'd;  
Belles bunch'd before, and bundled up behind;  
The flights of fashion bordering on buffoon,  
One looks like Punch, the other Pantaloon.  
But hold—my raillery makes some look gruff,  
Therefore I'm off; I'm sure I've said enough.

## THE WANDERING STRANGER.

BY S. LEWIS, A PRIVATE IN THE HOPE-TOUN FENCIBLES.

FAR from each dear domestic scene,  
From each lov'd object torn away,  
Far, far, from Annan's once-lov'd banks,  
I pensive, sad, and sighing, stray.  
Still ruminating on my fate,  
Through unknown tracks I joyless roam:  
No hand to help, no tongue to cheer,  
Or call the wand'ring stranger home;

Though guiltless of intended crimes,  
Yet not perhaps from censure free,  
I bade my native realms farewell,  
And left a land too good for me.  
Now quite forlorn and lost I prove:  
No pitying friend, no social dome,  
No gen'rous soul to soothe my grief,  
Or call the wand'ring stranger home!

Ye happy sons of wealth and pow'r,  
Who bask in fate's propitious beams,  
On whom misfortunes never low'r'd,  
Or felt blind Fortune in extremes;  
While round the festive board you sit,  
Where circling goblets sparkling foam,  
Ah! think what grief the heart assails  
Of the poor stranger far from home!

N E D and L U K E.

AN ECCLESIASTICAL TALE.

TWO chums at the same point of time,  
With general views so clear,  
Leave college, and, with eager hope,  
Their different plans pursue.

Ned ne'er cou'd wink at folly's prank,  
Nor flatter pride and vice;  
Spoke free and bluntly what he thought;  
And drefs'd not over nice.

Luke bow'd demure, spoke with a smile,  
Was always snug and clean;  
In others ne'er saw vice; and why?  
It ought not to be seen.

Twelve years elaps'd; disclosing time,  
Which every thing can dish up,  
Saw Ned a poor lank *Curate* still,  
And Luke a sleek fat *Bishop*.

They met; and on their different fates  
With usual freedom spoke;  
My Lord accounted for them thus—  
Success will have its joke:

"That one's so snug and t'other lank,  
"Must from this cause commence—  
"I by *divine permission* live,  
"You but on *Providence*."

## F O R E I G N N E W S.

DOWNING STREET, Jan. 26.

BY advices received from the Austrian army on the Rhine, dated December 30, it appears that a suspension of arms has been agreed upon between the Austrian and French generals in that quarter, with liberty to either party to put an end to it, on giving ten days notice.

FRANKFORT, Jan. 19. The following are the conditions of the Armistice agreed upon between the Austrian General Kray and the French General Mar-

ceau, as Plenipotentiaries of the Generals in chief of the two parties.

I. From the date of the 31st of December, 1795, hostilities shall cease between the two armies, and shall not be renewed till the party desirous to break the truce shall have given to the other ten days previous notice.

II. This notice shall be given in writing, and be sent by an Officer, who shall remain as an hostage till the ten days have elapsed.

III. The

III. The position of the two armies, and of their advanced posts, shall remain exactly on the same footing as at present, with the exception of such changes as may afterwards be agreed upon. If any misunderstanding shall arise on this head, the officers on the advanced posts shall settle the difference.

IV. Neither of the parties shall enter into a pass which has not been previously evacuated by the other.

V. The patrols shall not extend beyond their line.

VI. The Austrian advanced posts shall remain in their present line, from Eckenhausen to Koppstein; from this point they shall extend towards the Simmerbach, towards the Thau, beyond the Nahe: and on the other side of that River, all the way to Neunkirchen, from which they shall be drawn out from Ottweiler, along the River Bliefs.

VII. The French troops shall occupy the line of Nierdiebach, Manribach, Forsthaus, Gellweiler, Creynon, Arweiler, Breunel, Morscheid, Herborn, Veitoroth, Voismersbach, Idar, and Nockenthal, and shall extend from the side of the Nahe, all the way to Sellbach, and towards Bliefs, all the way to Ottweiler.

VIII. The passes, which are not occupied by the advanced posts, shall remain unoccupied. None shall be permitted to come there, except those guards which the troops who evacuated them shall leave behind.

The French army of the Rhine have established their head-quarters at Haguenau.

The imperial army, under the command of Marshal Clairfait, including the troops of the Empire and the Austrians who are posted in the duchy of Berg, amount to 46,000 men; and the army under Marshal Count Wurmser, including the troops under the Prince of Condé, to 61,000 men.

The retirement of the armies on the Rhine into winter quarters, in consequence of the truce, is so complete, and the tranquility in that quarter so free from interruption, that the inhabitants of the opposite banks are allowed to cross the river, for the purpose of their business. Two points are permitted for this communication, between Coblenz and Thal, and between Cologne and Mulheim. There are also places within the quarters of each army, which messengers from the others are allowed to approach, after displaying flags of truce.

COMA, ITALY, Dec. 19. An armistice for six weeks has just been concluded, and the armies will go into winter quar-

ters immediately, in their respective positions.

VIENNA, January 9.

This day at six o'clock in the evening, arrived here, the Princess Royal of France, accompanied by the Arch-duchess Maria Christina, who, went out as far as the first post to meet her. Her royal highness, after having changed her dress, paid a visit to their imperial majesties, who received her with the utmost tenderness. She supped afterwards with the whole of the august family.

Her French attendants were the same who left Paris with her, namely, Madame de Souci, and her family, M. Hue valet de chambre to her father, and two domestics; but these instead of being appointed about her person, and lodged in the palace, were conducted to the inn called the Three Hatchets, in the Scotch Square. Madame de Souci entered the presence-chamber with the princess; but at the moment she was about to present herself, and pay her respects to the emperor, she was prevented by the premier grand-master of the court, the Prince de Stahremberg, who, seizing her by the arm, said—"Madame, retire, this is not your place." Madame de Souci, making a second attempt to present herself, was pulled back by the robe; and, on making a third attempt, she was noticed by an inclination of the head by the emperor, who at the same time informed her, that apartments were provided for her and the other French attendants at the inn; after which he and his family, with the princess, retired into the emperor's apartments. Since that, all communication between the princess and her French attendants has been totally interdicted. Madame de Souci had not been suffered to see any of the French emigrants at Vienna; and two officers of the police are constantly stationed at the door of her chamber.—The French Princess remain equally inaccessible to all the emigrants.

Jan. 14. The Duke of Guise arrived here expressly to pay his respects to the daughter of his deceased sovereign; but he has hitherto been refused that grace; and it is said that the princess herself is totally averse to receive the visits of any emigrants, declaring, that they are the occasion of all the misfortunes which have befallen her family.

The Countess de Brienna, of the house of Lorraine, a relation of the emperor, as well as of Madame Royale, daughter of Louis XVI. having three times solicited permission to see that princess, was constantly refused. Madame de Guiche, brought up with the princess, requested the



the same favour, and met with the same refusal.—Even the faithful Hue, who never quitted Louis XVI. and constantly attended him in prison, and whom that unfortunate monarch, in his last will, expressly recommends to his family, has been sent back, together with Madame de Souci all the other attendants of Madame Royale who followed her from Paris.

Jan. 16. The princess royal of France enchants every body by her interesting appearance and manner, as well as by her affability and the justness of her way of thinking. She is of a middle size, but well proportioned; her eyes are large, and of a most expressive sweetness; her nose is rather aquiline, but very regular; she enjoys perfect good health, has an animated complexion, and is rather plump; the *total ensemble* of her countenance presents a mixture of grandeur, nobleness, and goodness, which strikes and captivates, and the public always receive her with acclamations, which often bring tears into her eyes. The court uses every means to amuse her, and to divert her thoughts from the melancholy scenes she has of late years been witness to: this attention is carried so far, that all the portraits of the royal family of France, which were in the gallery of pictures, and other apartments, were removed before the princess arrived.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, February 2.

*Copy of a Letter from Captain John Clarke Searle, Commander of his Majesty's Sloop Pelican, to Mr. Nepean, dated off Dominica, December 15, 1795.*

SIR, I avail myself of the opportunity of writing to you, by Captain Warre, on-board the Earl of Sandwich packet on his passage to England, merely to acquaint you, that I yesterday captured one of the enemy's cruizers, under the batteries of Mariegalante. She is a schooner of eight guns and fifty-six men.

*Other Prizes taken this Month.*

The Paul privateer, of Antigua, has lately captured and sent in there three

French vessels, laden with stores and ammunition.

The Speedwell privateer, of Lynn, has taken a Dutch ship of 240 tons, laden with flour and spirits, and sent her into Liverpool.

The Defence revenue cutter has taken and sent into the Isle of Sheppy a smuggling vessel, from Ostend, laden with contraband goods, supposed to be worth upwards of 30,000l.

The Fox privateer, Captain Thompson, of Bristol, has taken and carried into Plymouth, a Dutch lugger mounting eight guns. She had captured the Eliza, of Cornwall, which was retaken by the Fox.

The Expert armed vessel, of Jersey, has taken a Dutch ship of 150 tons burthen, on the French coast, and sent her into Guernsey.

The Souris French armed vessel was taken on the 29th ult. in the Channel, and carried into Dover, by one of his majesty's cruizers.

The Diana (Portuguese brig), with wine, was taken on the 1st inst. near Fal-mouth by a French frigate; since which she has been retaken by the Hornet sloop of war, and is arrived at Portsmouth.

The Dendon, French coasting merchantman, burden 260 tons, laden with store and provisions for Breit, is taken by one of his majesty's cruizers, and sent into Guernsey.

A Guernsey privateer has taken the Jonglarre French letter of marque laden with ammunition and stores for the West Indies, and sent her into Penzance, in Cornwall.

The Daphne, letter of marque, has taken a Dutch ship about six leagues from Texel loaded with coffee, cotton, and indigo, bound from Surinam to Amsterdam; she sent her to Scarborough. This prize is valued at 20,000l.

The Queen Charlotte privateer, of Jersey, has taken the French corvette Corbu, mounting 10 guns, and sent her into Guernsey.

## DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

THE temporary suspension of hostilities is not likely to be followed up by peace. The Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia are again to be subsidized by this country for the purpose of carrying on the war.

On Monday evening February 1st, as the royal family were returning through Pall-Mall, to Buckingham-house, from

Drury-Lane Theatre, some evil-disposed person flung a stone at the coach, in which were their majesties and the lady in waiting, with such violence as to break the window, and enter the carriage, where, after striking the queen on the cheek, it fell into Lady Harrington's lap. The king took it up, and carried it with him to Buckingham-house. A deposition on the a-

bove

bove business was taken next day, at the secretary of state's office, Whitehall, before his Grace the Duke of Portland, and some of the magistrates from Bow-street, when the stone was produced, and four of the king and queen's footmen were examined as to the fact and the circumstances. A reward of 1000*l.* is offered for the discovery and conviction of the offenders.

On Thursday, Feb. 11. the infant daughter of his royal highness the Prince of Wales was baptised at Carlton-house by the name of Charlotte Augusta.

The Admiralty Sessions commenced on Friday the 22d January at the Old Bailey, when Frances Cole and John Colley were tried and convicted of the wilful murder of William Little, on board the merchant-ship, called the American Eagle, on the high seas, within jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England, and were severally ordered to be executed on the Monday following at Execution Dock, and afterwards their bodies to be dissected. Michael Blanche and Emanuel Batha, two Spaniards charged with being concerned in the murder, and arraigned at the same time with Cole and Colley, were tried on Saturday, when Blanche was found guilty, and Batha acquitted. Sentence being passed, the judge, on account of the tide not serving, and to give the three unhappy wretches a little more time to prepare themselves for eternity, ordered them to be executed on Thursday, which took place accordingly.

Sunday morning January 24, at a quarter before nine o'clock, the Powder Mills belonging to Mr. Hill, at Hanmer, a mile and a half from Hounslow, and twelve from London, were blown up, owing, it is said, to the severe friction occasioned by the iron-works not being properly oiled. The flames communicated to a lighter in the mill-river, containing thirty barrels of powder, which also went off with a most tremendous shock. The concussions were distinctly felt throughout the whole of London, Westminster, and St. George's Fields, the force of which actually shook many persons in their beds, and staggered others who were walking in the streets. At Hounslow, every house is more or less damaged. Scarcely a pane of glass has escaped, and at the King's Head even the window-frames are shattered to pieces. At Isleworth, Twickenham, and Brentford, the people were so much alarmed, that they quitted their dwellings, and many of them ran about the streets for a considerable time half naked. Several of the houses are very considerably injured. Not a vestige of the mills is left stand-

ing and Hounslow Heath is covered with bricks and tiles.

Four men perished, viz. three who were in the mills and one in the vessel on the river, who have left large families to lament their shocking fate.

Until intelligence of the melancholy event reached town, the alarm of an earthquake universally prevailed.

The first explosion took place in the drying-house, the quantity of powder in which was not very great. The blowing up of the barge on the canal, which contained between twenty-five and thirty barrels, had such an effect on the water as absolutely to cast a vast number of fish on the adjoining banks. The damage is not so great, on the whole, as was at first supposed: the whole loss is estimated at 2000*l.*

The Dutton East-Indiaman was entirely lost in a violent gale of wind on Tuesday the 26th of January. On this disastrous occasion it appears that about twenty persons perished; and such was the nature of the calamity, that the deliverance of the rest on board was next to a miracle. All Monday night the wind at S. S. W. blew a very heavy storm, attended with a tremendous sea. The Dutton rode out the gale very well, until next morning about nine o'clock, when she began to drive towards the rocks at the west end of Mount Batten: about a quarter past eleven she was so near the shore as to strike. Fortunately, by setting the foretop-sail and stay-sail, her head wore round towards the garrison, and she cleared the Batten Point; but the rudder being unhung the ship was not under any command, and she stood on until she reached the shore just abreast of the citadel flag-staff, where she struck, and soon after bulged and filled with water. The people on-board immediately began to cut away the masts, to ease the ship's rolling, and also to form a bridge or stage between the ship and the shore, on which to attempt to save their lives; but, the sea running very high, the ship made so heavy a lurch towards the rocks, that the masts fell with great violence, so as to break in their fall, and in consequence to become useless for the purpose intended. Notwithstanding this, many of the soldiers and crew of the Dutton got out of the ship on the wreck, the sea at the same time breaking over them every moment; and, as no assistance could be given from the shore, they were in the most imminent danger of being drowned: many others would have followed, if the officers had not prevented them. Several of those who were on the wreck, after being almost spent by fatigue



figue, got into the ship again, but four or five of them who were hanging by ropes under the main chains, unfortunately perished, by the main-mast falling from the side of the ship on them. Another man was crushed to death, by the bowsprit falling on him. The gale continued with the greatest violence, attended with heavy thunder, lightning, and rain, until about two o'clock, when it began to moderate; about three the gale had so much abated as to enable boats, with great difficulty, to get near her on the side from the shore; and about three hundred of the soldiers were taken out in this manner, including upwards of eighty sick. At the time the ship struck, Captain Sir Edward Pellew, of the *Indefatigable*, at the hazard of his life, insisted on being hauled on-board by a rope lashed round his body: this cheered the spirits of the crew and soldiers, and each waited with the utmost patience his turn to be hauled ashore. Many of them were in a state of nakedness, and so bruised as to be unable to stand when landed. The greatest exertions were used by the inhabitants of the town, many of whom exposed their lives, and were in danger of being washed off the rocks. At five o'clock the ship fell over, about ten minutes after the last of the crew were taken out. About twelve or fourteen of the sick were so ill in their hammocks as to be unable to get on deck; these unfortunately perished, and went down in the ship! Not an article of her stores is saved, nor any thing belonging to the soldiers or crew, many of whom were without a covering.—So melancholy and distressing a scene had not been witnessed in Plymouth for many years past. Another account states, that six lives only have been lost, and that, on the troops seeing Major Eyre safe on the rock, they gave three cheers at a time that few people expected a third could be saved.

Thursday Jan. 28, at nine o'clock, the trial of Mr. William Stone, late of Old Ford, Middlesex, coal-merchant, commenced at Westminster Hall, before the Right Hon. Lord Kenyon, assisted by Justices Ashurst, Grose, and Lawrence.

Serjeant Adair, the leading counsel for the prisoner, requested that the court would give Mr. Stone leave to sit during his trial, being a good deal indisposed, which was granted.

The indictment was of very great length, and was laid on the stat. 25th Edw. III. It consisted of two several counts, and charged the prisoner with compassing and imagining the death of the king, and adhering to, aiding, abetting, and maintaining, the king's enemies.

The Attorney General stated the circumstances at full length; the leading features of which appeared to be, that the prisoner had a brother settled at Paris; with this brother, by means of Jackson, lately convicted of high treason in Ireland, Stone kept up a correspondence, and communicated to him the little prospect of the success of an invasion here, in order to dissuade those exercising the powers of government in France from undertaking a scheme likely to be fatal to their interests.

Several messengers and others were then called, who gave evidence to the finding several letters and papers at the prisoner's house, which were produced and read.

William Smith, Esq. M. P. Mr. Sheridan, and Lord Lauderdale, were called as witnesses to relate some conversation they had with Stone on the subject of the state of this country; the general result of which appeared to be, that they considered him as a weak enthusiast, who was desirous of bringing about a peace for the sake of favouring what he considered principles of freedom.

Several witnesses were called to prove an intercourse between Jackson and the prisoner; and Cockayne, the witness against Jackson in Ireland, was called, and stated the whole of his connection with Jackson, in nearly the same manner as he did on that trial.

At eleven o'clock on Friday (the Court having adjourned at half past ten on Thursday night, seeing no likelihood of coming to a conclusion), the evidence for the prosecution being closed, Serjeant Adair entered upon the defence. He observed to the jury, that they were called upon to discharge the most awful, the most sacred, though the most constitutional, of duties that could be imposed on civilized beings. They had heard from the Attorney General a very learned and candid opening, in which he charged the prisoner with two overt acts: 1st. That he conspired with two persons named, and other persons not named, in a deliberate intention of traitorous and treasonable proceedings; and, 2d. Engaged to aid and assist the enemies of his king and country in an intended invasion. His learned friend with candour stated, that unless the jury were well convinced that this overt act was brought home to the prisoner, and after that, unless he were convicted of a deliberate intention of treason, they would be bound to acquit him. The impression on their minds from the speech of his learned friend, relieved him from the difficulty of urging this idea.

idea more at large. It would be their duty to acquit him, if they had any doubts resting on their minds respecting his guilt; and how much more so, if they were satisfied, as he hoped to make them, that his intentions were innocent and loyal to his country. Contrary causes produced contrary effects; and from contrary effects contrary causes should be inferred. When then the prisoner was found doing what was useful to the country, what principle of justice could shew him equally culpable with Jackson, who intended the direct contrary? Serjeant Adair then proceeded to a summary of the case: the evidence applied to the situation of the prisoner respecting the parties—his correspondence with his brother and Jackson in Ireland, to his conduct while Jackson was in London, to the papers, and extrinsic evidence from the proofs of Jackson's conduct while in Ireland. On all these topics he argued with great ability, and from the whole contended, that not a tittle of evidence had been produced which in any manner could fix a treasonable intention on the part of the prisoner. Mr. Erskine followed on the same side.

The Solicitor General afterwards replied on the part of the crown.

Lord Kenyon began a short but very argumentative charge to the jury, with observing, that he would not detain them long. They had been engaged, during a great length of time, in a cause of the utmost consequence. In the annals of Westminster Hall, there were but few of equal consequence, and it necessarily required the very full and ample discussion it had received. The indictment consisted of two counts. The first was, compassing and imagining the death of the king; and the second charged the prisoner with adhering to the king's enemies. As no manner of evidence had appeared that could in any respect support the first count, it was to be left entirely out of the question, and all their consideration should be directed to the second alone.—Of all the written evidence, two papers only were of any material importance in the cause. Those emphatical papers he would lay before them. They had been found in the possession of the prisoner, and had been written, the one by Mr. W. Smith, and the other by H. Stone, from whom it had been sent to the prisoner, through the medium of Jackson. His Lordship read both to the jury, and Mr. Smith's paper was found to express the impolicy in the French, of invading this kingdom, as the union of the people, their satisfaction in respect of the government, and other circumstances, com-

bined to render the execution of such a project impracticable. The second paper, which was also in the form of a letter, expressed the same opinion in relation to England, though it stated, that things might not be so in Ireland. After several accurate and apposite comments, his lordship observed it was very material for the jury to consider the *quo animo* with which they have been written. Under several circumstances the writing of such papers would be no legal crime; but, however useful they might have become to the enemy, if any evil intention did not accompany the writing of them, it would amount to a strong degree of indiscretion, but not to high treason. The jury were nevertheless attentively to consider the motives with which they had been kept in the prisoner's custody; and, if it should appear to them that they had been so for the purpose of transmitting information of the state of the country to France, in order to be serviceable to that government, then no doubt could remain of the criminality.

His lordship then proceeded to state the oral evidence, in a brief but very clear and distinct manner; during the course of which he observed, that copies of the above-mentioned papers had been found on Jackson, in Ireland, and the originals on the prisoner at the bar, at the time of his apprehension. It was for them to consider, whether he had them for any improper or traitorous purposes. If it should appear that the prisoner had not meant, by the circuitous mode through the medium of Jackson, to transmit the intelligence contained in those papers to France, for the purpose of directing the persons exercising the powers of government there to the most effectual methods of attacking this country, however imprudent his conduct, it could not be considered treason.

About eight o'clock the jury took some refreshment, and then retired to consider of their verdict. After having been shut up three hours, they returned to the court, and the foreman pronounced a verdict—NOT GUILTY.

Mr. Erskine, with two other gentlemen, were drawn by the populace from New-palace Yard to Serjeant's Inn, Fleet-street, amidst reiterated plaudits. When he arrived at his house, he addressed the people who were assembled, exhorting them to conduct themselves with decorum, and repair peaceably to their respective homes, which was immediately complied with.

FEB. 12. A general fast is appointed for the ninth of March next.



## MILITARY ANECDOTES OF THE LATE LORD HEATHFIELD.

**T**HE Right Hon. George Augustus Elliot, Lord Heathfield, was born in 1718; and received the first rudiments of his education under a private tutor, and at an early time of life was sent to the university of Leyden, where he made considerable progress in classical learning. Being designed for a military life, he was sent from thence to the celebrated Ecole Royale du Genie Militaire, at La Fere in Picardy, where he laid the foundation of what he so conspicuously exhibited at the defence of Gibraltar. In 1735, he became a volunteer in the 23d regiment of foot, or Royal Welch Fusiliers, and soon after was admitted into the engineer corps at Woolwich; from whence he purchased the adjutancy of the 2d troop of horse-grenadiers, in which he became a captain and major, as well as lieutenant-colonel, when he resigned his commission as an engineer. In 1759, he quitted the horse-guards, and was selected to raise, form, and discipline, the 1st regiment of light-horse, which bore his name. Having gone through various departments in different services with the greatest marks of bravery and military knowledge, in 1775 he was appointed commander in chief in Ireland, which he soon relinquished, and was appointed to the command of Gibraltar, in a fortunate hour for the safety of that important fortress; where he, by a cool and temperate demeanour, maintained his station for three years of constant investment, in which all the powers of Spain were employed, and where he never spent his ammunition in useless parade, but seized on the proper moment, with the keenest perspection, to make his attack with success, which ever crowned his endeavours in repelling that memorable siege, an elegant copper-plate View of which will very shortly be seen. All the eyes of Europe were on this garrison; and his conduct as justly exalted him to the most elevated rank in the military annals of the day.—We shall therefore give a short account of the siege.

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The hostile manifesto presented by the Spanish ambassador to the court of London at the commencement of the late war, was soon followed by an interruption of communication betwixt Spain and the fortress of Gibraltar. No direct intention of attacking or distressing it, however, was manifested till the 16th of July 1779, when the port was completely blocked up by a squadron of two 74-gun ships, several frigates, galleys, &c. Ten days after they began to form a camp on the plain below St. Roch, three miles from the fortress. The garrison at this time consisted of 5382 men, including officers, with a company of engineers and artificers; but the greatest expectations were formed from the abilities and valour of General Elliot the governor. As soon as the breaking off the communication with Spain indicated approaching hostilities, the governor took every precaution that could be suggested by military wisdom; but, though informed of the rupture betwixt the two courts having actually taken place, and though he beheld the hostile operations of the enemy, no means were used to interrupt them till the 12th of September, when the batteries of Green's Lodge, Willis, and Queen Charlotte, were opened for a few hours, with a view to disturb the workmen.

From this time to the beginning of the year 1780 the enemy continued the blockade both by sea and land, but without doing any damage to the works or garrison; and it was not until the 12th of January that a single person was wounded. This happened to be a woman, who, passing near one of the houses, was slightly hurt by a shot from the enemy. In the mean time, however, the usual supplies of provisions being cut off, the garrison began to feel all the horrors of famine.

Had matters remained long in this state, it is plain that the fortress, however strong, must have fallen into the hands of the enemy. They were, however, effectually relieved in con-

sequence

sequence of the victory gained by Admiral Rodney over the Spanish fleet commanded by Don Juan de Langara. The former had been furnished with a strong squadron, in order to relieve this important fortress; with which having set sail, he in a few days fell in with a Spanish fleet of sixteen transports bound from Bilboa to Cadiz, and laden with provisions and naval stores, convoyed by a man of war of 64 guns, four frigates, and two armed vessels. Of these only a single transport escaped, the rest being all captured on the 8th of January 1780; and the loss of them, at the same time that it promised to be very serviceable to the garrison, was equally detrimental to the enemy, who were now in great want both of provisions and materials for their shipping.

This advantage was soon after followed by a much greater. On the 16th of the same month a Spanish squadron of eleven sail of the line was discovered off Cape St. Vincent; and, the British admiral having taken the proper methods to come up with them as quickly as possible, an engagement took place about four in the afternoon. At this time the headmost ships of the British line closed in with the nearest of the enemy, and in half an hour one of the Spaniards, mounting 70 guns, and having on-board six hundred men, blew up, and all on-board perished. In two hours more another Spanish ship of the line was taken; notwithstanding which the fight continued with great vigour till two in the morning, when the headmost ship of the enemy struck to the Sandwich; after which the firing ceased. The weather throughout the night was so tempestuous that it was with the utmost difficulty the British could take possession of those ships which surrendered. These were six in number, but two of them drove ashore and were lost, only four being brought safe into Gibraltar. These were the admiral's ship of 80 guns and seven hundred men, with three others of 70 guns and six hundred men. The engagement, however, happened so near the shore, and the British were so eager in securing the prize to prevent the enemy's

escape, that Admiral Rodney's ship, together with some of the largest in the fleet, were in great danger of running on the shoals of St. Lucar; nor could they be got into deep water again without much labour and the exertion of great naval skill. It was the opinion of all who were present in the action, that had this engagement happened in the day-time, or had the weather been less boisterous, not one of the Spanish ships could have escaped; and even as it was, those which got off were so extremely damaged as to be unfit for service.

The news of this important victory arrived at Gibraltar on the evening of the day after it was fought; and in two days more the garrison was completely relieved by the arrival of the fleet and convoy, at the same time that they were farther reinforced by a regiment of Highlanders, consisting of 1051 men, officers included. An opportunity was also taken of sending away with the fleet all the invalids and women in the garrison; with whom they set sail on the 10th of February, leaving in the bay only the Edgar and Panther ships of the line, with two frigates.

On the departure of the British fleet the blockade was immediately resumed; and, notwithstanding the ample supplies lately received, the garrison soon began again to experience the inconvenience of wanting fresh provisions. It had hitherto received these in abundance from the coast of Barbary; but an unaccountable alteration had now taken place, so that the friendship of the Emperor of Morocco was transferred from Great Britain to Spain in a manner totally unprecedented. His partiality towards the latter was the more surprising, as Britain had given no provocation, and the enmity between Spain and Morocco seemed to be in a manner constitutional, and founded upon such causes as could never cease to operate. Thus, however, the garrison became daily more and more distressed, from being obliged to make constant use of their salt provisions, and even this with the strictest economy. The industry and resolution of the British seamen and officers, indeed,



deed, sometimes overcame all obstacles, so that they found means to procure the necessary refreshments; though in so doing they were certainly exposed to the utmost danger from the enemy. At the same time the defence of the garrison was so vigorous, that, while it continued to be supplied even in this scanty manner, the Spaniards began to lose all hope of reducing it; for which reason they formed a project of burning all the British shipping in the bay. The night appointed for putting this scheme in execution was the 6th of June 1780, when ten fire-ships, favoured by an uncommon darkness, stood over from the Spanish to the British side of the bay. Their design was to set fire to the storehouses nearest to the water side, as well as to the shipping there; but having been too precipitate in firing their ships, and being received also by a very heavy cannonade, the attempt was frustrated. On this occasion the skill and intrepidity of the British seamen was eminently displayed. Having manned their boats, they grappled the fire-ships already in flames; and, notwithstanding their dreadful appearance and the danger of their exploding, towed them clear of the vessels under the walls, and extinguished them.

The failure of this project was a grievous disappointment to Don Barcelo the Spanish admiral, who lay ready with his squadron to intercept the British vessels that might attempt to escape; at the same time that the batteries on their lines were in readiness to bombard the town, if the fire-ships had succeeded in causing any conflagration on-shore. The failure of the present attempt, however, was soon followed by other disasters. As soon as they had, with great labour, pushed forward their new works, and constructed new batteries, they were certainly destroyed by the besieged; and their mortification on these occasions was the greater, as it was usual for the governor to allow them to complete their works before he commenced his destructive operations. Thus the labour of many days was often lost in a few hours, and afterwards was to be resumed with as little

prospect of success as before. The garrison were now considerably annoyed by the Spanish gun-boats, to which indeed the shipping were equally exposed with themselves. These were vessels from thirty to forty tons burden, constructed so that they lay low in the water, which rendered them difficult to be aimed at. They had fifteen oars on a side, carried forty or fifty men, with a twenty-six pounder on the prow; and, from the facility of managing them, two were deemed, in calm weather, to be a match for a frigate of moderate size. All their efforts, however, could still do no more than to reduce the garrison to great straits for want of provisions; and to this dreadful inconvenience the British submitted with the greatest cheerfulness. From the time of Admiral Rodney's departure in the month of February 1780 to the month of October, almost the only provisions in the garrisons were such as tended to produce the scurvy; which accordingly raged in such a manner as to threaten the most fatal consequences. An antidote, however, was happily procured by the capture of a Danish dogger from Malaga laden with lemons and oranges, which the governor immediately purchased for the use of the garrison, and distributed among them. Till this month the allowance of salt provisions had continued undiminished; but now it was judged necessary to reduce the allowance of bread and meat, and to make some other regulations in order to enforce the strictest economy with regard to food. At last, on the 12th of April 1781, supplies were brought by the British fleet under admirals Darby, Digby, and Ross, tho' they could not be got in without great difficulty. The gun-boats already-mentioned were now much increased in number and strength of construction; infesting the bay in such a manner as greatly to interrupt the debarkation of the stores. As no vessels of the same kind had been prepared to oppose them, they could scarcely be prevented from effecting their purpose of burning the store-ships. With this view they had approached them every morning in hazy weather to the

number of between twenty and thirty, several of them carrying mortar-pieces; and, as they used both sails and oars, they eluded all pursuit, by withdrawing on the rise of any breeze. To keep off these troublesome guests several stout frigates were obliged to station themselves along the bay for the protection of the shipping; but even this did not prevent them from continuing their molestation; and notwithstanding the vigilance and activity of the British sailors, it was seldom that they could come near enough to do them any damage. In spite of all their endeavours, however, the garrison was effectually relieved; an exploit which so exceedingly irritated the court of Spain, that they determined to exert the utmost force of the kingdom rather than fail in the execution of their favourite project. The works before the town were therefore carried on with more vigour than ever, and the most tremendous preparations made to cause the obstinate garrison to feel the resentment of an exasperated enemy. Their batteries were now mounted with guns of the heaviest metal, and with mortar-pieces of the largest size; the number of the former augmented to near two hundred, and of the latter to upwards of eighty. For three weeks this prodigious artillery continued to pour forth an almost incessant shower of shot and shells, insomuch that, in the time just mentioned, they had consumed one hundred thousand pounds of gun-powder, and thrown into the town four or five thousand shot or shells every twenty-four hours.

By such an immense bombardment the town was almost totally laid in ruins. The inhabitants, computed at more than three thousand in number, experienced every difficulty that could arise from the destruction of their habitations: several of them were killed, and all forced to leave the town, and take shelter under tents with what accommodation could be provided for them in such scenes of horror and confusion. Numbers took the opportunity of retiring with the fleet; while many that remained were now reduced from a state of opulence

to the greatest distress. The conduct of Governor Elliot was very humane and compassionate to such as were obliged to stay; allowing them a free passage to England, and supplying them with provisions for the voyage.

During this bombardment, not only the greatest part of the effects belonging to the inhabitants were destroyed, but the fortifications were in many places greatly injured; and the worst was, that the remainder were destroyed by the soldiers, who had arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness, that they neither regarded nor would obey their officers. They were incited to this destructive scheme by the avarice of some of the inhabitants, who had hoarded up and concealed a quantity of necessary articles, in order to procure an advanced price. They now, therefore, kept no bounds in dissipation, waste, and extravagance; a remarkable instance of which is given by Captain Drinkwater, in their roasting a pig by a fire made of cinnamon. To put a stop to these atrocious proceedings, rigorous measures were of necessity adopted; and it was intimated, that any soldier convicted of being drunk or asleep upon his post, or found marauding, should be immediately executed.

By the beginning of June 1781, the enemy had relaxed considerably in their firing, seldom exceeding six hundred shot in a day; and continued gradually to diminish this number so remarkably, that towards the end of August they seldom fired in the day, and only discharged six or seven, and sometimes not above three, shot in the night. The batteries at land, however, were succeeded by the gun-boats; which renewed their attacks every day, keeping the garrison in continual alarm, and never failing to do more or less execution. To restrain them, therefore a battery of guns capable of throwing their shot to a great distance was erected as near as possible to the enemy; and, as it reached their very camp, it was determined to open it upon them as often as the gun-boats made their attacks; which being soon perceived, they thought it prudent to desist in some measure from that mode of hostility. They



They continued still, however, to improve their works, and for this purpose employed the best engineers both of France and Spain; so that, by the latter part of November 1781, they had them brought to such a state of perfection as filled both kingdoms with the most sanguine expectations of success. Governor Elliot, however, far from being dismayed at these formidable bulwarks, suffered them to proceed without molestation to the end of their scheme, that he might as in a moment destroy the labour of so many months, and thus render the disappointment the greater. In the night of the 27th of November, a chosen party of two thousand men was detached, in order to destroy the enemies works and batteries; and their success was equal to their most sanguine expectation. They marched out in great order and silence about two o'clock in the morning, under the command of Brigadier-general Ross; after which they proceeded with the same circumspection, but with the utmost celerity, to the enemy's works, which they stormed and overthrew with astonishing rapidity. The Spaniards were instantly thrown into confusion, and fled on every side; the guns and mortars on the batteries were all spiked up; and the artillerymen, artificers, and sailors, exerted themselves so vigorously, that in the space of an hour the magazines were blown up, the store-houses of arms, ammunition, and military implements of every kind, and all the works that had been constructed, were set on fire, and totally consumed; the whole damage done on this occasion being estimated at upwards of two millions sterling.

For several days after this disaster the Spaniards continued inactive, without even making any attempt to extinguish their batteries, which still continued in flames; but in the beginning of December, as if suddenly aroused from their reverie, upwards of one thousand men were set to work in order to prepare a great number of fascines, from whence it was concluded that they designed to repair their works. In this they proceeded with their usual perseverance and di-

ligence; but, as the former methods of attack had constantly failed, it was evident, that, if the place could be reduced at all, it must be by some means hitherto unattempted; and for the reduction of this single fortress, the Spanish monarch, after the conquest of Minorca, determined to employ the whole strength of his empire. Among the various projects formed at this time, that of the Chevalier D'Arcon, a French engineer of distinction, proved the most acceptable to the court of Spain; and, though the expence attending it was immense, this seemed in the present circumstances to be but a matter of small consideration. His plan was to construct such floating batteries as might neither be liable to be sunk nor set on fire. With this view their bottoms were made of the thickest timber, and their sides of wood and cork long soaked in water, with a layer of wet sand betwixt them. Their thickness was such, that they were impenetrable to cannon-shot; and to prevent the effects of red-hot balls, a number of pipes were contrived to carry water through every part of the vessel, and pumps sufficient to furnish a constant supply for the purpose. The people at the batteries were sheltered from the bombs by a rope-netting made sloping, that they might roll off, and spread with wet skins to prevent fire. Ten of these batteries were constructed out of the hulls of large vessels, some of fifty or sixty guns, cut down for that purpose, and carrying from ten to twenty-eight guns each, with about half as many in reserve in case of accidents. Each gun was served by thirty-six artillerymen; and these floating batteries were to be seconded by eighty large boats carrying guns and mortars of heavy metal; a great number of ships of force and frigates, with some hundreds of small craft, were to accompany them with troops, for the instant execution of what might be judged necessary. On this occasion upwards of one thousand pieces of artillery and eighty thousand barrels of gun-powder were provided. A body of twelve thousand of the best troops of France were now added to the Spanish

Spanish army before the place ; the body of engineers was the best that both kingdoms could produce ; and numbers of volunteers, of the best families in both, attended the siege. Numbers of military gentlemen also came from every part of Europe to be witnesses of what passed at their celebrated siege, which was now compared to the most famous recorded in history. The conducting of it was committed to the Duke de Crillon, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of Minorca. Two princes of the blood royal of France, the Count of Artois brother to the king, and the Duke of Bourbon his cousin, came to be witnesses of this extraordinary enterprize. These behaved with the greatest politeness both to the governor and garrison. The Count of Artois transmitted a packet of letters for various individuals in the garrison, which had been intercepted and carried to Madrid, and which he requested that he might be the means of conveying to those for whom they were designed. Both he and the Duke of Bourbon signified to General Elliot the high regard they had for his person and character ; and the Duke de Crillon himself took this opportunity of expressing the same sentiments, and to intreat him to accept of some refreshments. General Elliot returned a polite answer, but accepted of the present with reluctance, and requested him for the future not to confer any favours of that kind upon him.

Such a prodigious armament raised the confidence of the besiegers so high, that they looked upon the conquest of the place as an absolute certainty. They began to be impatient at the delays which arose in bringing matters to the utmost point of perfection ; and the commander in chief was thought by far too modest, when he said, that the garrison might hold out for a fortnight.

As a prelude to the dreadful storm which was about to be poured forth on this devoted garrison, the enemy, on the 9th of September 1782, opened a battery of sixty-four of their largest cannon, which was shortly accompanied with a terrible fire from other

batteries, and a great number of mortars. On this and the following day an attack was made upon the batteries erected on Europa Point (so called from being the most southerly point of the continent of Europe,) which at that time were entirely under the management of Captain Curtis of the Brilliant frigate, who had distinguished himself during the siege, and now commanded a brigade of seamen by whom the batteries were served. By these the fire of the Spaniards was so warmly returned, that they not only could make no impression, but were forced to retire, after having received so much damage, that two of their principal ships were obliged to withdraw to the bay of Algeiras, opposite to Gibraltar, in order to re-fit. On the 12th the enemy made preparations for the ensuing day, which was allotted for their grand and decisive attack. Accordingly, on the morning of the 13th, the ten floating batteries came forward, under the command of Don Buenventura de Moreno, a Spanish officer of great gallantry, and who had signalized himself at the taking of Minorca. Before ten o'clock they had all got into their proper stations, anchoring in a line about a thousand yards distant from the shore. As soon as they were properly arranged, they began a heavy cannonade, and were seconded by all the cannon and mortars in the enemy's lines and approaches, at the same time that the garrison opened all its batteries both with hot and cold shot from the guns, and shells from the howitzers and mortars. This terrible fire continued on both sides without intermission until noon ; when that of the Spaniards began to slacken, and the fire of the garrison to obtain a superiority. About two o'clock the principal battering ship commanded by Don Moreno was observed to emit smoke as if on fire, and some men were seen busy upon the roof searching from whence it proceeded. The fire from the garrison was now kept up without the least discontinuance or diminution, while that from the floating batteries was perceived sensibly to decrease ; so that about seven in the evening they fired  
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but few guns, and that only at intervals. At midnight the admiral's ship was plainly seen to burn, and an hour after was completely in flames. Eight more of these batteries took fire successively; and on the signals of distress made by them, the multitude of feluccas, launches, and boats, with which they were surrounded, all came to their assistance, and began to take the men out of the burning vessels. Captain Curtis, who lay ready with the gun-boats to take advantage of any favourable circumstance, came upon them at two in the morning, and, forming a line on the enemy's flank, advanced upon them with such order and expedition as to throw them into immediate confusion. At this sudden and unexpected attack they were so astonished and disconcerted, that they fled precipitately with all their boats, totally abandoning their floating batteries to be burnt, and all who were in them to perish in the flames. This would undoubtedly have been their fate, had not Captain Curtis extricated them from the fire at the imminent danger of his own life and that of his men. In this work he was so eager, that, while his boat was along-side of one of the largest batteries, it blew up, and, the fragments of the wreck spreading all around to a vast distance, some heavy pieces of timber fell into his boat and pierced through its bottom, killing one man and wounding several others. He escaped with difficulty out of this boat, which was sunk, as well as another, by the same accident. The floating batteries were every one consumed; and the violence with which they exploded was such, that doors and windows at a great distance on-shore were burst open. About four hundred people were saved from them; many of whom were picked up floating on rafts and pieces of timber. Indeed the blowing up of the batteries as the flames reached their powder-rooms, and the discharge of the guns in succession as the metal became heated by the fire, rendered any attempt to save them very dangerous.

Though this terrible repulse effectually convinced the Spaniards that Gibraltar could not be taken by

force, some hope still remained; that, without any further exertions on their part, the garrison would be obliged to surrender from want of ammunition and provisions. With this view they continued to blockade it closely, and to cut off all communication, flattering themselves that Britain would not be able to collect a naval force sufficient to drive their fleet from the bay before the fortress was reduced to extremity; and this, they imagined, must be the case in a few days. Such diligence, however, had been used on the part of the British, that a fleet was already assembled at Portsmouth, consisting of thirty-five sail of the line, in excellent condition, and filled with the best officers and sailors in Europe. The command was given to Lord Howe, who was accompanied in the expedition by admirals Barrington, Milbank, Hood, Sir Richard Hughes, and Commodore Hotham, all of them men eminent in their profession.

The progress of these ships was delayed by contrary winds, and it was not until they had gained the southern coast of Portugal that they received information of the defeat of the enemy's attempt on the 13th of September. On the 11th of October Lord Howe entered the Straits, and several of the storeships destined for Gibraltar came safe to anchor under the cannon of the fort without any molestation from the enemy. The combined fleet in the mean time had been much damaged by a storm; they however, put to sea on the 13th, with a view to prevent the remaining storeships that had overshot the bay to the east from making good their entrance into it; and at the same time to rejoin two ships that had been separated from the main body by the storm. Having the advantage of the wind, they bore down upon the British fleet, which drew up in the order of battle to receive them; but, notwithstanding their superiority, they declined coming to an engagement. On the wind becoming more favourable next day, Lord Howe took the opportunity to bring in the storeships that were in company; and the day following the remainder were conveyed

veyed to Gibraltar, the troops for the reinforcement of the garrison were landed, with a large supply of powder and ample provision in every other respect. As they returned through Straits they were threatened with an engagement by the combined fleets; but, though the latter had a superiority of twelve ships of the line, they kept at a wary distance. Some firing indeed took place, but it was attended with little effect on either side.

This last relief proved entirely decisive; for though the blockade continued till news arrived of the preliminaries of peace being signed, in the beginning of February 1783, no other attack was made. The news of the pacification were received with the utmost joy by the Spaniards. Mutual civilities passed between the commanders in chief, and the Duke de Crillon paid many handsome compliments to the governor and garrison for their noble defence; declaring that he had exerted himself to the utmost of his abilities, and, though he had not proved successful, yet he was happy in having his sovereign's approbation of his conduct.

On the return of Governor Elliot to England, the gratitude of the British senate was as forward as the public voice in giving him that distinguished mark his merit deserved, to which his majesty was pleased to add

that of the peerage, by the title of Lord Heathfield, Baron Gibraltar, on June 14, 1787, and permitting his lordship to take also the arms of the fortress he had so bravely defended, to perpetuate to futurity his noble conduct.

His lordship married Anne, daughter of Sir Francis Drake, of Devonshire, and had by her (who died in 1769) Francis-Augustus, now Lord Heathfield, lieutenant-colonel of the 6th regiment of horse. He had acquired the brightest honours of a soldier, the love and reverence of his country; and he fell in an exertion beyond his strength, from an anxiety to close his life on the rock where had acquired his fame. Even the last efforts of his age and decay were in him proofs of a noble mind; for, after he had wasted his strength in the service of his country, he devoted his last act to private gratitude. The day of his death was actually fixed for the day of his marriage, from an endearing wish that the object of his youthful love might be the relief of his honoured age, and that he might exalt to the rank of a British peeress the tender and affectionate female, who, in a foreign island, had soothed him on the bed of sickness. He died at his chateau at Aix-la-Chapelle of a second stroke of the palsy, July 6, 1790, aged 72.

#### GENERAL MONK.

**W**HETHER Monk originally intended the revolution he finally effected, or whether he altered his views according to events, it was remarked that during all his measures he maintained no correspondence with Charles, and always professed himself zealous for a commonwealth. Hence he has been reproached with dissimulation; but let it be remembered, that, if Monk temporised, he saved the effusion of more blood in a work that was now become necessary. One circumstance was indeed fatally

wanting to complete his merit with the nation, and this was—to receive the exiled king upon express conditions for the limitation of his prerogatives and securing the liberties of his subjects. Charles, then, without money, without power, and a refugee, would have agreed to any thing: but this fine opportunity was lost by Monk's desire to claim merit with the *king* rather than with the *people*; and surely no man ever less justified the unlimited confidence placed in him than did Charles II.



HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN  
AMERICA.—Concluded from page 398.

NOT long after the events mentioned in our preceding number, means were found to detach Major-general Arnold, who had engaged so ardently in the cause of America, and who had exhibited so much bravery in the support of it, from the interests of the congress. Major André, adjutant-general to the British army, was a principal agent in this transaction: or, if the overture of joining the king's troops came first from Arnold, this gentleman was the person employed to concert the affair with him. More must have been originally comprehended in the scheme than the mere desertion of the American cause by Arnold: but, whatever designs had been formed for promoting the views of the British government, they were frustrated by the apprehending of Major André. He was taken in disguise, after having assumed a false name, on the 23d of September, by three American soldiers; to whom he offered considerable rewards if they would have suffered him to escape, but without effect. Several papers written by Arnold were found upon him; and, when Arnold had learned that Major André was seized, he found means to get on-board a barge, and to escape to one of the king's ships. General Washington referred the case of Major André to the examination and decision of a board of general officers, consisting of Major-general Green, Major-general Lord Sterling, Major-general the Marquis de la Fayette, Major-general the Baron de Stenben, two other major-generals, and eight brigadier-generals. Major André was examined before them, and the particulars of his case inquired into; and they reported to the American commander in chief, that Mr. André came on-shore from the *Vulture* sloop of war in the night, on an interview with General Arnold, in a private and secret manner; that he changed his dress within the American lines; and, under a feigned

name, and in a disguised habit, passed the American works at Stoney and Verplank's points, on the evening of the 22d of September; that he was taken on the morning of the 23d at Tarry-town, he being then on his way for New York: and that, when taken, he had in his possession several papers which contained intelligence for the enemy. They therefore determined, that he ought to be considered as a spy from the enemy; and that, agreeable to the law and usage of nations, he ought to suffer death. Sir Henry Clinton, Lieutenant-general Robertson, and the late American general Arnold, all wrote pressing letters to General Washington on the occasion, in order to prevent the decision of the board of general officers from being put in force: but their applications were ineffectual. Major André was hanged at Tappan, in the province of New York, on the 2d of October. He met his fate with great firmness; but appeared somewhat hurt that he was not allowed a more military death, for which he had solicited. He was a gentleman of very amiable qualities, had a taste for literature and the fine arts, and possessed many accomplishments. His death, therefore, was regretted even by his enemies; and the severity of the determination concerning him was much exclaimed against in Great Britain. It was, however, generally acknowledged by impartial persons, that there was nothing in the execution of this unfortunate gentleman but what was perfectly consonant to the rules of war.

Arnold was made a brigadier-general in the king's service, and published an address to the inhabitants of America, dated from New York October 7, in which he endeavoured to justify his desertion of their cause. He said, that, when he first engaged in it, he conceived the rights of his country to be in danger, and that duty and honour called him to her defence. A redress of grievances

was his only aim and object; and therefore he acquiesced unwillingly in the declaration of independence, because he thought it precipitate. But what now induced him to desert their cause was the disgust he had conceived at the French alliance, and at the refusal of congress to comply with the last terms offered by Great Britain, which he thought equal to all their expectations and to all their wishes.

After the defeat of General Gates by Earl Cornwallis, that nobleman exerted himself to the utmost in extending the progress of the British arms, and with considerable effect. But one enterprise, which was conducted by Major Ferguson, proved unsuccessful. That officer had taken abundant pains to discipline some of the Tory militia, as they were termed; and with a party of these and some British troops, amounting in the whole to about fourteen hundred men, made incursions into the country. But on the 7th of October he was attacked by a superior body of Americans at a place called King's-mountain, and totally defeated. One hundred and fifty were killed in the action, and eight hundred and ten made prisoners, of which one hundred and fifty were wounded. Fifteen hundred stands of arms also fell into the hands of the Americans, whose loss was inconsiderable. But the following month Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, who continued to exert his usual activity and bravery, with a party of one hundred and seventy, chiefly cavalry, attacked and defeated General Sumpter, who is said to have had one thousand men, at a place called Black Stocks. Sumpter was wounded, and about one hundred and twenty of the Americans killed, wounded, or taken. Of the British troops about fifty were killed and wounded.

On the 3d of September, the Mercury, a congress packet, was taken by the Vestal, Captain Keppel, near Newfoundland. On-board this packet was Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, who was bound on an embassy to Holland. He had thrown his papers overboard, but great part

of them were recovered without having received much damage. He was brought to London, and examined before the privy-council; in consequence of which he was committed close prisoner to the Tower, on the 6th of October, on a charge of high treason. His papers were delivered to the ministry, and contributed to facilitate a rupture with Holland, as among them was found the sketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America.

At the beginning of the year 1781, an affair happened in America, from which expectations were formed by Sir Henry Clinton, that some considerable advantage might be derived to the royal cause. The long continuance of the war, and the difficulties under which the congress laboured, had prevented their troops from being properly supplied with necessaries and conveniences. In consequence of this, on the first of January, the American troops that were huddled at Morris town, and who formed what was called the Pennsylvania line, turned out, being in number about thirteen hundred, and declared, that they would serve no longer, unless their grievances were redressed, as they had not received their pay, or been furnished with the necessary clothing or provisions. It is said that they were somewhat inflamed with liquor, in consequence of rum having been distributed to them more liberally than usual, New-year's day being considered as a kind of festival. A riot ensued, in which an officer was killed, and four wounded; five or six of the insurgents were also wounded. They then collected the artillery, stores, provisions, and waggons, and marched out of the camp. They passed by the quarters of General Wayne, who sent a message to them, requesting them to desist, or the consequences would prove fatal. They refused, and proceeded on their march till the evening, when they took post on an advantageous piece of ground, and elected officers from among themselves. On the second, they marched to Middlebrook, and on the third to Prince-town, where they



they fixed their quarters. On that day a flag of truce was sent to them from the officers of the American camp, with a message, desiring to know what were their intentions. Some of them answered, that they had already served longer than the time for which they were enlisted, and would serve no longer; and others, that they would not return, unless their grievances were redressed. But at the same time they repeatedly, and in the strongest terms, denied being influenced by the least disaffection to the American cause, or having any intentions of deserting to the enemy.

Intelligence of this transaction was was soon conveyed to New York. A large body of British troops were immediately ordered to hold themselves in readiness to move on the shortest notice, it being hoped that the American revolvers might be induced to join the royal army. Messengers were also sent to them from General Clinton, acquainting them that they should directly be taken under the protection of the British government; that they should have a free pardon for all former offences; and that the pay due to them from the congress should be faithfully paid them, without any expectation of military service, unless it should be voluntary, upon condition of laying down their arms and returning to their allegiance. It was also recommended to them to move beyond the South river; and they were assured, that a body of British troops should be ready to protect them whenever they desired it. These propositions were rejected with disdain; and they even delivered up two of Sir Henry Clinton's messengers to the congress. Joseph Reed, Esq. president of the state of Pennsylvania, afterwards repaired to them at Princeton, and an accommodation took place: such of them as had served out their full terms were permitted to return to their own homes, and others again joined the American army, upon receiving satisfactory assurances that their grievances should be redressed.

Lord Cornwallis now began to make very vigorous exertions, in order to penetrate into North Carolina. On the 11th of January his

lordship's army was in motion, and advancing towards that province; but was somewhat delayed by an attempt made by the Americans, under General Morgan, to make themselves masters of the valuable district of Ninety-six. In order to prevent this, Lord Cornwallis detached Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, with three hundred cavalry, three hundred light infantry, the 7th regiment, the first battalion of the 71st regiment, and two three-pounders, to oppose the progress of Morgan, not doubting but that he would be able to perform this service effectually. The British troops came up with the Americans under General Morgan on the 17th of January. The Americans were drawn up in an open wood, and, having been lately joined by some militia, were more numerous than the British troops under Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton; but the latter were so much better disciplined, that they had the utmost confidence of obtaining a speedy victory. The attack was begun by the first line of infantry, consisting of the 7th regiment and a corps of light infantry, with a troop of cavalry placed on each flank. The first battalion of the 71st and the remainder of the cavalry formed the reserve. The American line soon gave way, and their militia quitted the field; upon which the royal troops, supposing the victory already gained, engaged with ardour in the pursuit, and were thereby thrown into some disorder. General Morgan's corps, who were supposed to have been routed, then immediately faced about, and threw in a heavy fire upon the king's troops, which occasioned the utmost confusion amongst them; and they were at length totally defeated by the Americans. Four hundred of the British infantry were either killed, wounded, or taken prisoners: the loss of the cavalry was much less considerable; but the two three-pounders fell into the hands of the Americans, together with the colours of the 7th regiment; and all the detachment of the royal artillery were killed or wounded. Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, however, made another effort; having assembled

assembled about fifty of his cavalry, with which he charged and repulsed Colonel Washington's horse, retook his baggage, and killed the Americans who were appointed to guard it. He then retreated to Hamilton's ford, near the mouth of Bullock's creek, carrying with him part of his baggage, and destroying the remainder.

This defeat of the troops under Tarleton was a severe stroke to Lord Cornwallis, as the loss of his light infantry was a great disadvantage to him. The day after that event, he employed in collecting the remains of Tarleton's corps, and in endeavouring to form a junction with General Leslie, who had been ordered to march towards him with a body of British troops from Wynneshorough. Considerable exertions were then made by part of the army, without baggage, to retake the prisoners in the hands of the Americans, and to intercept General Morgan's corps on its retreat to the Catawba. But that American officer, after his defeat of Tarleton, had made forced marches up into the country, and crossed the Catawba the evening before a great rain, which swelled the river to such a degree, as to prevent the royal army from crossing for several days; during which time the British prisoners were got over the Yadkin; whence they proceeded to Dan River, which they also passed, and on the 14th of Feb. had reached Court-house in the province of Virginia.

Lord Cornwallis employed a halt of two days in collecting some flour, and in destroying superfluous baggage, and all his waggons, excepting those laden with hospital stores, salt, and ammunition, and four reserved empty in readiness for sick or wounded. Being thus freed from all unnecessary incumbrances, he marched through North Carolina with great rapidity, and penetrated to the remotest extremities of that province on the banks of the Dan. His progress was sometimes impeded by parties of the militia, and some skirmishes ensued, but he met with no very considerable opposition. On the first of February, the king's troops crossed the Catawba at M<sup>c</sup>Cowan's

Ford, where General Davidson, with a party of American militia, was posted, in order to oppose their passage; but, he falling by the first discharge, the royal troops made good their landing, and the militia retreated. When Lord Cornwallis arrived at Hillsborough, he erected the king's standard, and invited, by proclamation, all loyal subjects to repair to it, and to stand forth and take an active part in assisting his lordship to restore order and government. He had been taught to believe that the king's friends were numerous in that part of the country: but the event did not confirm the truth of the representations that had been given. The royalists were but few in number, and some of them too timid to join the king's standard. There were, indeed, about two hundred who were proceeding to Hillsborough, under Colonel Pyle, in order to avow their attachment to the royal cause; but they were met accidentally, and surrounded, by a detachment from the American army, by whom a number of them are said to have been killed when they were begging for quarter, without making the least resistance. Meanwhile General Greene was marching with great expedition with the troops under his command, in order to form a junction with other corps of American troops, that he might thereby be enabled to put some effectual stop to the progress of Lord Cornwallis.

In other places some considerable advantages were obtained by the royal arms. On the 4th of January, some ships of war with a number of transports, on-board which was a large body of troops under the command of Brigadier-general Arnold, arrived at Westover, about one hundred and forty miles from the Capes of Virginia, where the troops immediately landed, and marched to Richmond; which they reached without opposition, the militia that was collected having retreated on their approach. Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe marched from hence with a detachment of the British troops to Westham, where they destroyed one of the finest founderies for cannon in America,



America, and a large quantity of stores and cannon. General Arnold, on his arrival at Richmond, found there large quantities of salt, rum, sail-cloth, tobacco, and other merchandise; and that part of these commodities which was public property he destroyed. The British troops afterwards attacked and dispersed some small parties of the Americans, took some stores and a few pieces of cannon, and on the 20th of the same month marched into Portsmouth. On the 25th, Captain Barclay, with several ships of war, and a body of troops under the command of Major Craig, arrived in Cape Fear river. The troops landed about nine miles from Wilmington, and on the 28th entered that town. It was understood that their having possession of that town, and being masters of Cape Fear river, would be productive of very beneficial effects to Lord Cornwallis's army.

General Greene having effected a junction about the 10th of March with a continental regiment of what were called *eighteen months men*, and two large bodies of militia belonging to Virginia and North Carolina, formed a resolution to attack the British troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis. The American army marched from the High Rock Ford on the 12th of the month, and on the 14th arrived at Guildford. Lord Cornwallis, from the information he had received of the motions of the American general, concluded what were his designs. As they approached more nearly to each other, a few skirmishes ensued between some advanced parties, in which the king's troops had the advantage. On the morning of the 15th, Lord Cornwallis marched with his troops at day-break in order to meet the Americans, or to attack them in their encampment. About four miles from Guildford, the advanced guard of the British army, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, fell in with a corps of the Americans, consisting of Lieutenant-colonel Lee's legion, some Back Mountain men and Virginian militia, with whom he had a severe

skirmish, but whom he at length obliged to retreat.

The greater part of the country in which the action happened is a wilderness, with a few cleared fields interspersed. The American army, which was superior to the royal in point of numbers, was posted on a rising ground about a mile and a half from Guildford court-house. It was drawn up in three lines: the front line was composed of the North Carolinian militia, under the command of the generals Butler and Eaton; the second line of Virginian militia, commanded by the generals Stephens and Lawson, forming two brigades; the third line, consisting of two brigades, one of Virginia and one of Maryland continental troops, commanded by General Hugar and Colonel Williams. Lieutenant-colonel Washington, with the dragoons of the first and third regiments, a detachment of light infantry composed of continental troops, and a regiment of riflemen under Colonel Lynch, formed a corps of observation for the security of their right flank. Lieutenant-colonel Lee, with his legion, a detachment of light infantry, and a corps of riflemen under Colonel Campbell, formed a corps of observation for the security of their left flank. The attack of the American army was directed to be made by Lord Cornwallis in the following order:—On the right, the regiment of Bose and the 71st regiment, led by Major-general Leslie, and supported by the first battalion of guards; on the left, the 23d and 33d regiments, led by Lieutenant-colonel Webster, and supported by the grenadiers and second battalion of guards commanded by Brigadier-general O'Hara; the yeagers and light infantry of the guards remained in a wood on the left of the guns, and the cavalry in the road, ready to act as circumstances might require.

About half an hour after one in the afternoon, the action commenced by a cannonade, which lasted about twenty minutes; when the British troops advanced in three columns and attacked the North Carolinian brigades

gades with great vigour, and soon obliged part of these troops, who behaved very ill, to quit the field: but the Virginian militia gave them a warm reception, and kept up a heavy fire for a long time, till, being beaten back, the action became general almost every where. The American corps under the lieutenant-colonels Washington and Lee were also warmly engaged, and did considerable execution. Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton had directions to keep his cavalry compact, and not to charge without positive orders, excepting to protect any of the corps from the most evident danger of being defeated. The excessive thickness of the woods rendered the British bayonets of little use, and enabled the broken corps of Americans to make frequent stands with an irregular fire. The second battalion of the guards first gained the clear ground near Guildford court-house, and found a corps of continental infantry, superior in number, formed in an open field on the left of the road. Desirous of signaling themselves, they immediately attacked and soon defeated them, taking two six-pounders: but, as they pursued the Americans into the wood with too much ardour, they were thrown into confusion by a heavy fire, and instantly charged and driven back into the field by Lieutenant-colonel Washington's dragoons, with the loss of the six-pounders they had taken. But the American cavalry were afterwards repulsed, and the two six-pounders again fell into the hands of the British troops. The spirited exertions of Brigadier-general O'Hara and of Lieutenant-col. Tarleton, greatly contributed to bring the action to a termination. The British troops having at length broken the second Maryland regiment, and turned the left flank of the Americans, got into the rear of the Virginian brigade, and appeared to be gaining their right, which would have encircled the whole of the continental troops, when General Greene thought it prudent to order a retreat. Many of the American militia dispersed in the woods; but the continental troops retreated in good order to the Reedy Fork

River, and crossed at the ford about three miles from the field of action, and there halted. When they had collected their stragglers, they retreated to the iron-works, ten miles distant from Guildford, where they encamped. They lost their artillery and two waggons laden with ammunition. It was a hard-fought action, and lasted an hour and an half. Of the British troops, the loss, as stated by Lord Cornwallis, was five hundred and thirty-two killed, wounded, and missing. General Greene, in his account of the action transmitted to the congress, stated the loss of the continental troops to amount to three hundred and twenty-nine killed, wounded, and missing; but he made no estimate of the loss of the militia. Lieutenant-colonel Stuart was killed in the action; and Lieutenant-colonel Webster, and the captains Schutz, Maynard, and Goodriche, died of the wounds that they received in it. Brigadier-general O'Hara, Brigadier-general Howard, and Lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, were also wounded. Of the Americans the principal officer killed was Major Anderson of the Maryland line, and the generals Stephens and Huger were wounded.

The British troops underwent great hardships in the course of this campaign; and in a letter of Lord Cornwallis's to Lord George Germain, dated March 17th, he observed, that "the soldiers had been two days without bread." His lordship quitted Guildford three days after the battle which was fought in that place; and on the 7th of April arrived in the neighbourhood of Wilmington. Soon after, General Greene, notwithstanding his late defeat, endeavoured to make some vigorous attempts against the king's forces in South Carolina. Lord Rawdon had been appointed to defend the post of Camden, with about eight hundred British and provincials; and on the 19th of April General Greene appeared before that place with a large body of continentals and militia. He found it, however, impossible to attempt to storm the town with any prospect of success; and therefore endeavoured to take such a position as should induce the

British



British troops to fall from their works. He posted the Americans about a mile from the town, on an eminence which was covered with woods, and flanked on the left by an impassable swamp. But on the morning of the 25th, Lord Rawdon marched out of Camden, and with great gallantry attacked General Greene in his camp. The Americans made a vigorous resistance, but were at last compelled to give way; and the pursuit is said to have been continued three miles. For some time after the action commenced, General Gates entertained great hopes of defeating the British troops; in which, as the Americans were superior in point of numbers, he would probably have succeeded, had not some capital military errors been committed by one or two of the officers who served under him. On the American side Colonel Washington had behaved extremely well in this action, having made upwards of two hundred of the English prisoners, with ten or twelve officers, before he perceived that the Americans were abandoning the field of battle. The loss of the English was about one hundred killed and wounded. Upwards of one hundred of the Americans were taken prisoners; and, according to the account published by General Greene, they had one hundred and twenty-six killed and wounded. After this action, Greene retreated to Rugeley's mills, twelve miles from Camden, in order to collect his troops and wait for reinforcements.

Notwithstanding the advantage which Lord Rawdon had obtained over General Greene at Camden, that nobleman soon after found it necessary to quit that post; and the Americans made themselves masters of several other posts that were occupied by the king's troops, and the garrisons of which were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war. These troops were afterwards exchanged under a cartel which took place between Lord Cornwallis and General Greene for the release of all prisoners of war in the southern district. After these events, General Greene laid close siege to Ninety-six, which was con-

sidered as the most commanding and important of all the posts in the back-country; and on the 19th of June he attempted to storm the garrison, but was repulsed by the gallantry of the British troops, with the loss, as it is said, of seventy-five killed and one hundred and fifty wounded. General Greene then raised the siege, and retired with his army behind the Saluda, to a strong situation within sixteen miles of Ninety-six.

On the 18th of April a large body of British troops, under the command of Major-general Philips and Brigadier-general Arnold, embarked at Portsmouth in Virginia, in order to proceed on an expedition for the purpose of destroying some of the American stores. A party of light-infantry were sent ten or twelve miles up the Chickahomany; where they destroyed several armed ships, sundry warehouses, and the American state ship-yards. At Petersburg, the English destroyed four thousand hog-heads of tobacco, one ship, and a number of small vessels on the stocks and in the river. At Chesterfield court-house, they burnt a range of barracks for two thousand men and three hundred barrels of flour. At a place called Osborn's they made themselves masters of several vessels loaded with cordage and flour, and destroyed about two thousand hog-heads of tobacco, and sundry vessels were sunk and burnt. At Warwick, they burnt a magazine of five hundred barrels of flour, some fine mills belonging to Colonel Carey, a large range of public rope-walks and store-houses, tan and bark houses full of hides and bark, and great quantities of tobacco. A like destruction of stores and goods was made in other parts of Virginia.

From the account already given of some of the principal military operations of the present year in America, it appears, that, though considerable advantages had been gained by the royal troops, yet no event had taken place from which it could rationally be expected that the final termination of the war would be favourable to Great Britain. It was also a disadvantageous circumstance, that there

was

was a misunderstanding between Admiral Arbuthnot and Sir Henry Clinton, and a mutual disapprobation of each other's conduct. This was manifest from their dispatches to government, and especially from those of General Clinton, whose expressions respecting the conduct of the admiral were by no means equivocal.

On the 16th of March, 1781, a partial action happened off the Capes of Virginia, between the fleet under Admiral Arbuthnot, consisting of several ships of the line and one fifty-gun ship, and a French squadron, consisting of the same number of ships of the line and one forty-gun ship. Some of the ships in both fleets received considerable damage in the action, and the loss of the English was thirty killed and seventy-three wounded; but no ship was taken on either side. The British fleet had, however, very considerably the advantage; as the French were obliged to retire, and were supposed to be prevented by this action from carrying troops up the Chesapeake, in order to attack General Arnold and impede the progress of Lord Cornwallis. But it was an unfortunate circumstance, that some time before this engagement the *Romulus*, a ship of 44 guns, was captured by the French off the Capes of Virginia.

Lord Cornwallis, after his victory over General Greene at Guildford, proceeded, as we have seen, to Wilmington, where he arrived on the 7th of April. But, before he reached that place, he published a proclamation, calling upon all loyal subjects to stand forth and take an active part in restoring good order and government; and declaring to all persons who had engaged in the present rebellion against his majesty's authority, but who were now convinced of their error, and desirous of returning to their duty and allegiance, that if they would surrender themselves with their arms and ammunition at headquarters, or to the officer commanding in the district contiguous to their respective places of residence, on or before the 20th of that month, they would be permitted to return to their homes upon giving a military parole; they

would be protected in their persons and properties from all sorts of violence from the British troops; and would be restored as soon as possible to all the privileges of legal and constitutional government. But it does not appear that any considerable number of the Americans were allured by these promises to give any evidences of their attachment to the royal cause.

On the 20th of May, his lordship arrived at Petersburg in Virginia, where he joined a body of British troops that had been under the command of Major-general Philips; but the command of which, in consequence of the death of that officer, had devolved upon Brigadier-general Arnold. Before this junction he had encountered considerable inconveniences from the difficulty of procuring provisions and forage; so that, in a letter to Sir Henry Clinton, he informed him, that his cavalry wanted every thing, and his infantry every thing but shoes. He added, that he had experienced the distresses of marching hundreds of miles in a country chiefly hostile, without one active or useful friend, without intelligence, and without communication with any part of the country.

On the 26th of June, about six miles from Williamsburgh, Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe, and three hundred and fifty of the queen's rangers, with eighty mounted yagers, were attacked by a much superior body of the Americans; but whom they repulsed with great gallantry and with equal success, making four officers and twenty private men prisoners. The loss of the Americans in this action is said to have been upwards of one hundred and twenty, and that of the British troops not more than forty.

On the 6th of July an action happened near the Green Springs in Virginia, between a reconnoitring party of the Americans under Gen. Wayne, amounting to about eight hundred, and a large part of the British army under Lord Cornwallis; in which the Americans had one hundred and twenty-seven killed and wounded, and the loss of the royal troops is supposed to have been considerably greater. It was an action in which



no small degree of military skill and courage was exhibited by the Americans. In a variety of skirmishes, the Marquis la Fayette very much distinguished himself, and displayed the utmost ardour in the American cause.

Notwithstanding the signal advantages that Lord Cornwallis had obtained over the Americans, his situation in Virginia began by degrees to be very critical; and the rather because he did not receive those reinforcements and supplies from Sir Henry Clinton of which he had formed expectations, and which he conceived to be necessary to the success of his operations. Indeed, the commander in chief was prevented from sending those reinforcements to Lord Cornwallis which he otherwise might have done, by his fears respecting New York, against which he entertained great apprehensions that General Washington intended to make a very formidable attack. In fact, that able American general appears to have taken much pains, and to have employed great finesse, in order to lead Sir Henry Clinton to entertain this imagination. Letters, expressive of this intention, fell into the hands of Sir Henry, which were manifestly written with a design that they should be intercepted, and only with a view to amuse and deceive the British general. The project was successful; and by a variety of judicious military manœuvres, in which he completely out-generalled the British commander, he increased his apprehensions about New York, and prevented him from sending proper assistance to Lord Cornwallis. Having for a considerable time kept Sir Henry Clinton in perpetual alarm in New York, tho' with an army much inferior to the garrison of that city, General Washington suddenly quitted his camp at White Plains, crossed the Delaware, and marched towards Virginia, apparently with a design to attack Lord Cornwallis. Sir Henry Clinton then received information, that the Count de Grasse, with a large French fleet, was expected every moment in the Chesapeake, in order to co-operate with General Washington. He im-

mediately endeavoured, both by land and water, to communicate this information to Lord Cornwallis; and also sent him assurances, that he would either reinforce him by every possible means in his power, or make the best diversion he could in his favour. In the mean time, Lord Cornwallis had taken possession of the posts of York-town and Gloucester in Virginia, where he fortified himself in the best manner he was able.

On the 28th of August, Sir Samuel Hood, with a squadron from the West Indies, joined the squadron under the command of Admiral Graves before New York. It was then necessary, on account of the situation of Lord Cornwallis, that they should immediately proceed to the Chesapeake; but some time appears to have been needlessly lost, though Admiral Hood was extremely anxious that no delay might be made. They arrived, however, in the Chesapeake, on the 5th of September, with nineteen ships of the line; where they found the Count de Grasse, who had anchored in that bay on the 30th of August, with twenty-four ships of the line. The French admiral had previously landed a large body of troops, which had been brought from Rhode Island, and who immediately marched to join the American army under Gen. Washington. The British and French fleets came to an action on the same day in which the former arrived in the Chesapeake. On-board the British fleet ninety were killed and two hundred and forty-six wounded; some of the ships were greatly damaged in the engagement, and the *Terrible*, a 74-gun ship, was so much shattered, that it was afterwards found necessary to set fire to it. That this action was not favourable to the English was manifest from the event: the fleets continued in sight of each other for five days successively, and sometimes were very near; but at length the French fleet all anchored within the cape, so as to block up the passage. Admiral Graves, who was the commander in chief of the British fleet, then called a council of war, in which it was resolved, that the fleet should proceed to New York,

that the ships might be there put into the best state for the service : and thus were the French left masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake.

Before the news of this action had reached New York, a council of war was held there, in which it was resolved, that five thousand men should be embarked on-board the king's ships, in order to proceed to the assistance of Lord Cornwallis. But, when it was known that the French were absolute masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake, it was thought inexpedient to send off that reinforcement immediately. In another council of war, it was resolved, that, as Lord Cornwallis had provisions to last him to the end of October, it was advisable to wait for more favourable accounts from Admiral Graves, or for the arrival of Admiral Digby, who was expected with three ships of the line. It was not then known at New York, that Admiral Graves had determined to return with the whole fleet to that port.

In the mean time, the most effectual measures were adopted by Gen. Washington for surrounding the British army under Lord Cornwallis. A large body of French troops under the command of Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau, with a very considerable train of artillery, assisted in the enterprise. The Americans amounted to near eight thousand continentals and five thousand militia. General Washington was invested with the authority of commander in chief of these combined forces of America and France. On the 29th of September, the investment of York Town was complete, and the British army quite blocked up. The day following, Sir Henry Clinton wrote a letter to Lord Cornwallis, containing assurances that he would do every thing in his power to relieve him, and some information concerning the steps that would be taken for that purpose. A duplicate of this letter was sent to his lordship by Major Cochran on the 3d of Oct. That gentleman, who was a very gallant officer, went in a vessel to the Capes, and made his way to Lord Cornwallis, through the whole French

fleet, in an open boat. He got to York Town on the 10th of the month; and soon after his arrival had his head carried off by a cannon ball.

After the return of Adm. Graves to New York, a council of war was held, consisting of flag and general officers; in which it was resolved, that a large body of troops should be embarked on-board the king's ships as soon as they were refitted, and that the exertions of both fleet and army should be made in order to form a junction with Lord Cornwallis. Sir Henry Clinton himself embarked on-board the fleet, with upwards of seven thousand troops, on the 18th; they arrived off Cape Charles, at the entrance of the Chesapeake, on the 24th, where they received intelligence that Lord Cornwallis had been obliged to capitulate five days before.

It was on the 19th of October that Lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army, by capitulation, prisoners to the combined armies of America and France, under the command of General Washington. He made a defence suitable to the character he had before acquired for courage and military skill; but was compelled to submit to untoward circumstances and superior numbers. It was agreed by the articles of capitulation, that the British troops were to be prisoners to the United States of America, and the seamen to the French king, to whose officers also the British vessels found at York Town and Gloucester were to be delivered up. The British prisoners amounted to more than six thousand; but many of them, at the time of surrender, were incapable of duty. A considerable number of cannon, and a large quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of the Americans on this occasion.

As no rational expectation now remained of a subjugation of the colonies, the military operations that succeeded in America were of little consequence. Some inconsiderable actions and skirmishes did indeed take place after that event; in which the refugees chiefly distinguished themselves, and discovered an inveterate animosity against the Americans. On the



the 5th of May 1782, Sir Guy Carleton arrived at New York, being appointed to the command of the British troops in America in the room of Sir Henry Clinton. Two days after his arrival, he wrote a letter to Gen. Washington, acquainting him, that Admiral Digby was joined with himself in a commission to treat of peace with the people of America; transmitting to him, at the same time, some papers tending to manifest the pacific disposition of the government and people of Britain towards those of America. He also desired a passport for Mr. Morgan, who was appointed to transmit a similar letter of compliment to the congress. General Washington declined signing any passport till he had taken the opinion of congress upon that measure; and by them he was directed to refuse any passport for such a purpose. However, another letter was sent to General Washington, dated the 2d of August, and signed by Sir Guy Carleton and Rear-admiral Digby, in which they informed him, that they were acquainted by authority that negotiations for a general peace had already commenced at Paris; that Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat with all the parties at war; and was then at Paris in the execution of his commission. They farther informed him, that his majesty, in order to remove all obstacles to that peace which he so ardently wished to restore, had commanded his ministers to direct Mr. Grenville, that the independency of the thirteen provinces should be proposed by him, in the first instance, instead of making it the condition of a general treaty. But some jealousies were entertained by the Americans, that it was the design of the British court either to disunite them, or to bring them to treat of a peace separately from their ally the King of France: they therefore resolved, that any man, or body of men, who should presume to make any separate or partial convention or agreement with the King of Great Britain, or with any commissioner or commissioners under the crown of Great Britain, ought to be considered and treated as open and avowed ene-

mies of the United States of America; and also that those states could not with propriety hold any conference or treaty with any commissioners on the part of Great Britain, unless they should, as a preliminary thereto, either withdraw their fleets and armies, or else, in positive or express terms, acknowledge the independence of the said states. They likewise resolved, that any propositions which might be made by the court of Great Britain, in any manner tending to violate the treaty subsisting between them and the King of France, ought to be treated with every mark of indignity and contempt.

In the month of June, the town of Savannah, and the whole province of Georgia, were evacuated by the king's troops; as was also Charlestown, South Carolina, about the close of the year. In the mean time, the negotiations for peace being continued, provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 30th of November by the commissioner of his Britannic majesty and the American commissioners, in which his majesty acknowledged the united colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be "free, sovereign, and independent, states." They had constituted themselves such on the 4th of July 1776; they had been acknowledged such by the French king on the 30th of January 1778, when he concluded with them a treaty of amity and commerce; Holland had acknowledged them as such April 19th 1782; Sweden acknowledged them as such February 5th 1783; Denmark the 25th Feb. Spain in March, and Russia in July, the same year.

According to the report of the committee appointed for that purpose, the foreign debt of the United States incurred by the war, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars, and the domestic debt to 34,115,290; total, at 4s. 6d. each, equal to 9,450,084l. sterling, the interest of which at six per cent. is 567,005l. But the cost to Great

Britain

Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914l. and the additional annual burthen by it 4,557,575l. since January 1775. As to the loss of men during the unhappy war, the States of America, according to authentic estimates, lost by the sword and in prison near 80,000 men; and by the British returns at New York, the number of soldiers killed in the service amounted to 43,633.

Such was the end of the contest between Great Britain and America:—A contest in which the latter attained to an independent rank among the nations, that may be productive of more important consequences than can yet be foreseen; and in which the former, happily for herself, was forced to relinquish a sovereignty that served only to repress her own internal industry, and retard her prosperity. She has, in the event, only suffered a diminution of unwieldy empire, which has been more than compensated by an increase of population, commerce, revenues, and wealth.

As to the general constitution of the American States:—By the acts of confederation and perpetual union, each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation.—But, for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined, that delegates should be annually appointed in such a manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday of November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any

time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state is to be represented in congress by less than two nor more than seven members; and no person is capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor is any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, shall receive any salary, fees, or emolument, of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state is to have one vote. Every state is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions which are submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation are to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every state.

The states have been since much employed in deliberations concerning the new modelling of their government, in order to establish such a form as may be respected abroad, and prove salutary for domestic peace and security. But the several objects of their attention are so various and diffusive, as to render it impossible to give even a summary view of the whole. They are desirous to preserve a republican or democratic government, yet in some measure similar to the government from which they have separated. As a parallel to our king, lords, and commons, it has been proposed to have a president, a senate, and a house of representatives; with this difference, that the president and senate are elective: the president to be the grand executor of the laws: foreign treaties already made, or which may hereafter be made, to be regarded as the supreme law of the land.

The whole territory of the United States contains by computation a million of square miles, in which are 640 millions of acres. Of these fifty-one millions



millions are water; deducting which, the total amount of acres of land in the United States is 589 millions.

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the lake of the woods on the north, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south (the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania),

contains by computation about 411,000 square miles, in which are 26,340,000 acres. Deduct for water, 4,340,000 acres; there remains 220 millions of acres.

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, or vacant unsettled land, containing as above stated 220 millions of acres, has been by the cession of some of the original states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt.

## MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

### GALLANT DEFENCE OF LATHAM HOUSE BY THE COUNTESS OF DERBY.

**D**URING the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament, the Earl of Derby being absent in the Isle of Man, his countess, the Lady Charlotte, being left in this house, the enemy looked upon it as their own, little expecting from a woman, and a place (as they thought) unprovided, any considerable resistance; so that a commission was presently obtained for reducing it; which being made known to the countess, she furnished herself with men, arms, and ammunition, with all imaginable diligence and secrecy; and, finding the men generally raw and inexperienced, she caused them to be listed and trained under experienced captains; and matters were so privately and prudently managed, that the enemy advanced within two miles of the house ere they dreamed of any opposition than from her own servants.

But upon the 28th of February 1644 there came to this lady a trumpet from Sir Thomas Fairfax, and with him a person of quality, to desire a conference with her. Whereupon, Sir Thomas and some gentlemen being admitted, the soldiers of the garrison were disposed in such a manner as might best enhance the appearance and opinion both of their number and discipline. Their commission being to require the delivery of the house, they offered her an honourable and safe removal, with her children, servants, and goods, (arms and ammunition

excepted,) to her own house at Knowsley, also a protection to reside there free from any molestation, and the one moiety of her lord's estate, in England, for the support of herself and children. To which she answered, that she was under a double trust, that of faith to her husband and allegiance to her sovereign; and that, without their leave, she could not give it up, desiring therefore a month's time for her answer, which being refused, her ladyship told them, that she hoped they would excuse her, if she preserved her honour and obedience, though to her ruin.

Upon this Sir Thomas Fairfax departed; and, the question being put, whether they should proceed by storm or siege, he gave his opinion for the latter, which advice was promoted by an artifice of one of the Earl of Derby's chaplains (probably Mr. Rutter, whose integrity and prudence was of no little service to that heroic lady in all her extremities).

About fourteen days after the former conference, there came another summons for a present surrender, but the trumpet was sent away with this short answer, viz. "That the countess had not as yet forgotten what she did owe to the church of England, to her prince, and to her lord, and that, till she had either lost her honour or her life, she would defend that place." Whereupon Fairfax gave orders for a formal siege; but, being commanded away

away upon other service, left the managing of it to Colonel Peter Egerton and Major Morgan.

Latham House is situated upon a flat boggy ground, and was encompassed with a wall two yards thick, without which was a moat eight yards wide, and two yards deep. Upon the bank of which moat, between the wall and the graff, was a strong palisado throughout. Upon the walls were also nine towers flanking them, and on each tower six pieces of ordnance, which played three one way and three another. Besides these, there was in the middle of the house a high tower, called the eagle tower. The gate-house also was a strong and lofty building, and stood at the entrance of the first court. Upon the top of all these towers were placed the choicest marksmen (keepers, fowlers, and the like), who greatly galled the enemy, and cut off many of their officers in their trenches.

Fairfax departing, the enemy set forthwith on a line of circumvallation. Whereupon the countess, to disturb their approaches, ordered a sally of two hundred men, commanded by Major Farmer, who on March 12, 1644, beat them from their trenches to the main guard, slew about three-score, and took some prisoners, with the loss of only two men. Upon this they doubled their guards, and drew their line at a greater distance. But they were so plied with sallies, that it was fourteen days before they could finish their line, after which they ran a deep trench near the moat, where they raised a strong battery, and planted on it a mortar-piece, which cast stones and granadoes of sixteen inches diameter; of which granadoes the first fell close to the table where the countess, her children, and the officers, were all at dinner, and shivered the room, but hurt nobody. The apprehensions of their danger made them resolve on another sally, to take the mortar-piece. In this sally, after an hour's dispute, they possessed themselves of all the enemy's works, nailed and overturned all their cannon, or rolled them into the moat, and carried the mortar-piece into the house.

They continued masters of their works and trenches all that day, and endeavoured to fill them up and destroy them as much as possible. At this time the countess went not only out of the gates, but sometimes very near the trenches.

Her piety was such, that she constantly began all those actions with public prayers, and closed them with thanksgivings, and took every opportunity of instilling such pious and religious principles into her troops, that they were always prepared for death; and that she knew was the only way to make them bold and intrepid, for, when a wicked man sees danger, his sins fly in his face, and he has both his enemies and his conscience to encounter.

This successful sally happened on the 26th of April, being the very day appointed by the enemy for a fierce assault, who had orders to put every one to the sword.

After this it took the enemy at least five or six days to repair their works, but in that space they were thrice dislodged and scattered by other vigorous sallies.

These disasters gave Colonel Rigby (a malicious enemy to the Earl of Derby) a colour for laying the fault on Colonel Peter Egerton, by which means he got the commission for himself to command in chief, after which he would not permit so much as a midwife to pass into the house to a gentlewoman then in labour; and in about a fortnight carried on his work without much trouble, as the garrison was in want of powder. But, that defect being supplied by another sally, the countess proposed a fresh assault upon their trenches, which being accordingly agreed on, they again beat the enemy from their works, cleared the trenches, nailed their great guns, and killed a hundred of their men, with the loss only of three, and five or six wounded.

After a month's siege, and the loss of two thousand men, by their own confession, Rigby sent the countess a huffing summons, to which she returned this answer: "Tell that insolent rebel, Rigby, that if he presumes



to send another summons within the place I will have the messenger hanged up at the gates."

Thus did this heroic lady keep her

enemies at bay, till the earl her husband came from the Isle of Man to her assistance, and with the forces under Prince Rupert raised the siege,

### THE HISTORY AND ADVANTAGES OF PROPERTY.

**T**HE first objects of property were undoubtedly the fruits which a man gathered, and the wild animals which he caught; next to these, the tents or houses which he built, the instruments he made use of to catch or prepare his food, and afterwards weapons of war and offence. Many of the savage tribes in North America have advanced no farther than this yet; for they are said to reap their harvest, and return the produce of their market with foreigners, into the common hoard or treasury of the tribe. Flocks and herds of tame animals soon became property; Abel, the second son from Adam, was a keeper of sheep; sheep and oxen, camels and asses, composed the wealth of the Jewish patriarchs, as they do still of the modern Arabs. As the world was first peopled in the east, where there existed a great scarcity of water, wells probably were next made property; as we learn from the frequent mention of them in the Old Testament, the contentions and treaties about them, and from its being recorded among the most memorable achievements of very eminent men, that they dug or discovered a well. Land, which is now so important a part of property, which alone our laws call real property, and regard upon all occasions with such peculiar attention, was probably not made property in any country till long after the institution of many other species of property, that is, till the country became populous, and tillage began to be thought of. The first partition of an estate which we read of, was that which took place between Abram and Lot, and was one of the simplest imaginable: "If thou wilt take the left hand, then I will go to the right; or, if thou depart to the right hand, then I will go to the left." There are no traces of property in land in Cæsar's account of Britain;

little of it in the History of the Jewish patriarchs; none of it found amongst the nations of North America; the Scythians are expressly said to have appropriated their cattle and houses, but to have left their land in common. Property in immovables continued at first no longer than the occupation; that is, so long as the man's family continued in possession of a cave, or his flocks depastured upon a neighbouring hill, no one attempted, or thought he had a right, to disturb or drive them out: but, when the man quitted his cave, or changed his pasture, the first who found them unoccupied entered upon them, by the same title as his predecessor's; and made way in his turn for any one that happened to succeed him. All more permanent property in land was probably posterior to civil government and to laws; and therefore settled by these, or according to the will of the reigning chief.

There must however be some very important advantages to account for an institution, which in one view of it is so paradoxical and unnatural.—Let it first be considered that the earth, in climates like ours, produces little without cultivation; and none would be found willing to cultivate the ground, if others were to be admitted to an equal share of the produce. The same is true of the care of flocks and herds of tame animals. Crabs and acorns, red deer, rabbits, game, and fish, are all we should have to subsist upon in this country, if we trusted to the spontaneous productions of the soil: and it fares not much better with other countries. A nation of North American savages, consisting of two or three hundred, will take up, and be half-starved upon, a tract of land, which in Europe and with European management would be sufficient for the maintenance of as many thousands. In some fertile soils,

foils, together with great abundance of fish upon their coasts, and in regions where clothes are unnecessary, a considerable degree of population may subsist without property in land; which is the case in the islands of Otaheite: but in less favoured situations, as in the country of New Zealand, though this sort of property obtain in a small degree, the inhabitants for want of a more secure and regular establishment of it, are driven oftentimes by the scarcity of provision to devour one another.

This institution also preserves the produce of the earth to maturity. We may judge what would be the effects of a community of right to the productions of the earth, from the trifling specimens which we see of it at present. A cherry-tree in a hedge-row, nuts in a wood, the grass of an unfenced pasture, are seldom of much advantage to any body, because people do not wait for the proper season of reaping them. Corn, if any where sown, would never ripen; lambs and calves would never grow up to sheep and cows, because the first person that met with them would reflect, that he had better take them as they are than leave them for another. Besides, war and waste, tumult and confusion, must be unavoidable and eternal, where there is not enough for all, and where there are no rulers to adjust the division.

The establishment of property very much contributes to the convenience of living. First, it enables mankind to divide themselves into distinct professions; which is impossible, unless a man can exchange the productions of his own art for what he wants from others; and exchange implies property. Much of the advantage of civilized over savage life depends upon this. When a man is from necessity his own tailor, tent-maker, carpenter, cook, huntsman, and fisherman, it is not probable that he will be expert at any of his callings. Hence the rude habitations, furniture, clothing, and implements, of savages; and the tedious length of time which all their operations require. It likewise encourages those arts, by which the accommodations of human life are supplied, by appropriating to the artist the benefit of his discoveries and improvements; without which appropriation, ingenuity will never be exerted with effect.

Upon these several accounts we may venture, with a few exceptions, to pronounce, that even the poorest and worst provided, in countries where property and the consequences of property prevail, are in a better situation, with respect to food, raiment, houses, and what are called the *necessaries of life*, than any are in places where most things remain in common.

#### A RECEIPT FOR CURING THE BITE OF A MAD DOG.

AS soon as possible after the distemper has happened, take a cupping-glass, rarefy the air therein by the flame of a lamp, torch, candle, paper, or other combustibles; then, applying it to the wound, the atmosphere, by its violent pressure on all parts of the flesh around the glass and sore, will not only force part of it into the glass, but will effectually press out, drive before it, and expel, the blood, with the venomous particles lurking therein; whereby all bad consequences will unavoidably be prevented, and the unfortunate person freed from danger, which otherwise must have befallen him by the direful accident. And, in case a cupping-glass is not

to be had, the operation may be performed by a cyder-glass, chocolate-cup, pepper-box, or other tight domestic implement. And, that on such melancholy occasions materials may not be wanting, we propose, that all physicians, apothecaries, and other practitioners in physic, together with the incumbents of the several parishes throughout the kingdom, be well provided with a number of the said cupping-glasses, to be always ready to relieve the distressed. And that help may never be wanting, and as cupping-glasses are said to be bought for so small a price as three-pence each; we would recommend every family to be provided with one of them at least.

SELECT



## SELECT POETRY.

## LEAP-YEAR, or 1796.

AN IRISH SONG, COMPOSED AND SUNG  
BY MR. DIEDIN.

**W**ON'T you hail the leap-year, by  
that am'rous rogue Janus  
Once in ev'ry four times consecrated to  
Venus?

Oh! the fine lovely season for frolic and  
sporting,

When the men are made love to, and girls  
go a courting!

Then come round me, dear cratures, and  
frolic and frisk it,

And dance it and whisk it, and dance it  
and whisk it;

Sing shmalliow, ballethin, araroo, Pat;  
(To be sure dere won't be fine fun going  
forward!)

Fait and conscience and you may say dat.

Rich young ladies of sixty, new born to  
love's joys,

Shall hobble and mumble their courtship  
to boys;

Girls shall court from the shiners of old  
men assistance,

With their eye on a tight handsome lad at  
a distance.

Then come round me, &c.

(To be sure they won't make the best use  
of their time.)

Miss Maypole shall stoop to the arms of  
an imp,

And the tall Lady Gawky shall court my  
Lord Shrimp;

Miss Pigmy shall climb round the neck of  
tall man,

And the rich widow Mite court a big Irish  
jolman.

Then come round me, &c.

(To be sure dere won't be fine ogling, and  
fighing, and dying.)

Miss Champanfy, whose monkey has so  
many charms,

Of a nice powder'd fop shall rush into the  
arms;

To court Mister Sciatic Miss Spasm shall  
hop,

And Miss Cheveux-de-frize shall address  
Mister Crop.

Then come round me, &c.

(To be sure they won't put the fellows  
in a nice flusteration.)

So you've nothing to do, jolmen, but to  
sit still,

And fait ev'ry Jack will soon find out a  
Gill.

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Come on, ye bold devils, lie, swear, and  
make speeches;

'Tis leap-year, and petticoats govern the  
breeches.

Then come round me, &c.

(To be sure the girls won't cut a charm-  
ing figure when they're dressed in  
their inexpressibles!)

## THE NEGRO'S COMPLAINT.

**T**HE sun had long sunk in the west,  
The moon in her splendour shone  
bright,

The crew had retired to rest,

In their hammocks to pass the long  
night;

When Oran, but late made a slave,  
Contriv'd to escape from the hold;

And, as he hung o'er the wild wave,  
He thus did his sorrows unfold:

"With anguish my heart does now bleed,  
Thus depriv'd of my liberty sweet;

To slav'ry now I'm decreed,  
Yet death with more pleasure I'll meet.

The white man, who, thirsting for gold,  
Hopes to barter my freedom for gain,

My loss with regret shall be told,  
And seek me, but seek me in vain.

By the light of the moon still I view

That shore where with freedom I rov'd;  
Ye hills and ye valleys, adieu!

It was there I met Orra, and lov'd.

Sweet maid, to be from thee thus torn,  
My grief is more than I can bear;

My fate is too hard to be borne,  
I give myself up to despair.

'Twas for thee the leopard I forc'd

To rise from the couch where he lay;

'Twas for thee that the tiger I cours'd,  
That thou with their spoil might be gay.

As I follow'd the pard o'er the field,

The men who in ambush were laid

Rush'd forth, and compell'd me to yield,  
And in chains to their vessels convey'd.

But, sooner than suffer their chain,

To death I will cheerfully fly

And free me from sorrow and pain:

For Orra alone now I sigh

To P'Shapon\*, my god, I return

That Spirit which to me he gave.

For freedom and death now I burn."

So saying, he plung'd in the wave.

\* An Indian idol.

## F O R E I G N N E W S.

## THE CHOUAN WAR.

ANGERS, *February 25, 1796.*

**S**TOFFLET, the chief of the Chouans in La Vendée, and the four officers who were taken with him, were shot yesterday, at half after nine in the morning, in the Field of Mars. Stofflet died with firmness: he himself bound the handkerchief before his eyes, and knelt down: he was dispatched by the first shot. One of his aides-de-camp required no fewer than ten shots to kill him. These unfortunate men were betrayed by a farmer, who led them to our detachment stationed at the farm of La Plotinière in the commune of Neuvy between Valois and Chollet, where they slept. Three men belonging to their guard were sleeping in the barn; the first grenadier who entered the room seized Stofflet in his shirt, but he was soon thrown down by the other, who would have strangled him, had not an hussar ran to his deliverance. Stofflet, after great resistance, during which he received several bayonet and sword wounds, was at length bound, as were also the five others who slept in an adjacent chamber. At the same moment our troops surrounded the chateau of Lavois, a league and an half from this place. We have as yet no certain advices from thence: it is, however, rumoured that Bernier is taken. The chateau was filled with Brigands. The death of Stofflet has excited in this place a joy proportioned to the dread his name inspired in this quarter, where he has so long spread desolation and death.

It was expected here that Stofflet's examination would produce several curi-

ous details: this, however, has not been the case, as he did not enter into his defence. His principal reply to the question why he had again taken up arms, related to the non-execution of the treaty made with him—the representatives not having withdrawn the troops from La Vendée, and not having granted him his territorial guard. The information he afforded was very trifling; but much more is expected from a young lad of fourteen years of age who served him as a domestic, and who has been pardoned.

The following portrait of Stofflet, the late commander in La Vendée, has appeared in a Paris paper. In stature, he was about five feet four inches, strongly built; his shape vulgar and brutal; his mind had never received any species of cultivation. He imbibed the education, and retained the temper and manners, of a German gamekeeper. He led his men to battle as his dogs to the chase of the boar. He was rather brutal than ferocious. He always preserved his ancient habits, his old connections; he did not love, he despised, the nobility. He was looked up to with the utmost reverence by the peasants.

Among other atrocities committed by Stofflet, the following are handed us. At the attack of Bressuire, he chopped off the hands of two hussars, his prisoners. By his order, the unfortunate Pasquer, mayor of that commune, was interred up to his neck; in this state his wife, expiring with her wounds, was brought before him. This miscreant has at length expiated all his crimes.

## DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

## L O N D O N.

**B**Y all the latest accounts from abroad, there is now hardly a possibility of any event occurring to prevent the recommencement of hostilities: all sides seem bent upon the decision of arms, at an incalculable expence of human wretchedness and misery, and only wait till the weather shall permit them to take the field.

Intelligence has been lately received over-land, from Bombay, of the surrender of the following Dutch settlements to the British forces:—Malacca and its dependencies (when, not mentioned); Jaffnapatam, on the Island of Ceylon, on the

27th of September; and Cochin, on the Malabar coast, on the 20th of October. Intelligence has likewise been received of the death of his highness the Nabob of the Carnatic, on the 13th of October; and also of the Peshwa, or first minister of the Mahratta government, on the 27th of that month.

Wednesday the ninth of March being the day appointed by proclamation for a general fast throughout England, it was observed with the usual solemnity. At noon, the royal family attended divine service, and heard a sermon, in the Chapel Royal, at St. James's palace. The house

to



of peers on the same occasion went to Westminster Abbey; and the commons to the parish church of St. Margaret. The lord mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, &c. attended divine service at St. Paul's.

A few weeks ago, Mr. Richard England, who killed Mr. Rolle, brewer, of Kingston, in a duel twelve years ago, and made his escape to the continent, arrived in town from France. He was taken into custody on account of the outlawry which had been issued against him. Being brought to the bar of the King's Bench to plead to the outlawry, or suffer sentence of death to be passed upon him, he there gave in a paper assigning six errors in the said outlawry. The outlawry was in consequence reversed, and the prisoner committed to take his trial on the original indictment for the murder of Mr. Rolle.

The trial came on at the Old Bailey on Friday, the 19th of February.

Mr. Serjeant Adair, in a candid, elegant, and sensible, speech, of nearly an hour's duration, stated the circumstances of the case. The learned serjeant observed, that the dispute had originated in a gaming transaction, in which the deceased, Mr. Rolle, had lost a considerable sum of money to the gentleman at the bar. The affair was brought into a court of justice, but, by advice of the counsel on both sides, was compromised, so that Mr. Rolle was to pay Mr. England part of the sum claimed. Mr. England, not satisfied with that adjustment, still entertained sentiments of resentment, threatening that the matter should not rest there. Mr. Rolle, the deceased, was a young man of fortune and character, but liable, on some occasions, to be hurried into fashionable excesses and follies. Some time after the settlement between them, he happened to meet Mr. England at Ascot races, where, as it would appear by the testimony of a noble lord (Derby) of high rank and character, he was publicly denounced by him as a person not to be talked with, as he was a person who would not pay what he lost, or what he borrowed. Mr. Rolle, naturally resenting such an insult, came up to Mr. England, and began the dispute, which unfortunately terminated in his own death. Mr. England, convinced of the criminality of his act, fled from the laws of his country, where he remained twelve years, and did not return till some of the witnesses, who had given evidence against him at the coroner's inquest, were dead. If, after such an interval, the prosecution was still maintained, it should be recollected, it was a duty due to offended justice, and to the feelings and duty of a

mother that had lost her child, and could not see him, by whose hand he fell, walking about in safety; but, should he be dismissed by the verdict of a jury, the learned serjeant said, he trusted her animosity would be buried in the grave of her son.

The Earl of Derby was the first witness called on the part of the crown. His lordship said, he was present at the dispute; Mr. England appealed to the company, by way of a caution, advising them not to bet with Mr. Rolle, whom he represented as a person that would "not pay what he lost, or what he borrowed." Mr. Rolle, hearing those words, came up to Mr. England in a turbulent and boisterous manner, as if he intended to strike him, and said, "What do you mean by that, you rascal, you scoundrel!" To which Mr. England replied, "Stand off, or I'll knock you down: our altercation has already disturbed the company; if you or your friends have any thing to say to me, you know where I am to be found." The meeting between the parties, his lordship understood, took place the following morning.

Captain Donnestal, who was the second of the deceased, was the next person called; but, on his representing that his evidence might tend to criminate himself, was excused.

Mr. Curzon said, he was present at the coroner's inquest, when the depositions of the witnesses were reduced to writing, but did not recollect whether the coroner signed them.

John Sandeford, a coachmaster at Chiswick, was at Cranford Bridge on the 18th of June, 1784, when the unhappy accident took place. He saw four gentlemen in a field, one of whom he knew to be Mr. Rolle, the deceased; they stood two on the east and two on the west, at the distance of about eighteen yards; and Mr. Rolle fell down and expired. He that shot him, instead of going up to yield him any assistance, stepped into a post-chaise, which instantly proceeded for London.

Lord Viscount Cremorne stated, that he, Lady Cremorne, and the Rev. Mr. Burrows, rector of St. Clement's, who was lately dead, happened to pass that way at the time of the duel, near Cranford Bridge. For the sake of preventing the effusion of blood, his lordship and Mr. Burrows interfered, but their offer was roughly rejected by Mr. Rolle and his second. Mr. England, on the contrary, pulling off his hat, said, "Gentlemen, I have been cruelly treated, injured in my honour and character; let there be

a reparation made to that, and I'll have done."

Mr. England, when called upon for his defence, solemnly protested before God that he had gone to this unfortunate meeting with very different sentiments from those of his antagonist, who seemed determined that nothing but one of their deaths should put an end to the dispute, while he went there merely to rescue his fame and honour from the invidious reports which Mr. Rolle had spread, and without which life was not worth preserving. That he had no alternative between dishonour and a duel; that he endeavoured to keep as far at a distance from the deceased as he could, to avoid disgrace; that he wished solely to rescue his honour; and, being satisfied in his own conscience, he securely left his life or death in the hands of the jury.

The Marquis of Hertford, Mr. Whitbread, jun. Colonel Bishop, Colonel Bullock, Colonel Woollaston, Colonel Stanhope, and Lord Derby, all concurred in giving Mr. England a most excellent character for his quiet and peaceable disposition, gentlemanly deportment, and attention to his countrymen while on the continent.

The jury withdrew for half an hour, and returned with a verdict of Not Guilty as to the Murder, but Guilty of Manslaughter.

Mr. Justice Rook immediately proceeded to pass sentence on him, observing, he had no doubt the jury had satisfied their consciences in the verdict they had given, nor was it his duty to enquire into it. As the case stood, he had no lenity to expect from the court, for, by flying from the laws of his country for the space of twelve years, the court had been prevented from having the same evidence as had been given before the coroner's inquest: they should, as far as was in their power, make him an example: he was therefore sentenced to the fine of one shilling, and to twelve months imprisonment in Newgate.

Tuesday March 8, Michael Cox, Robert M'Laurin, John Sullivan, Martin Ealy, and William Morrison, were executed on the deck of the *Defiance* man of war, at Sheerness, for a mutiny on-board that ship.—John Flint, George Wythick, John Lawson, and William Handy, with the ropes round their necks, received his majesty's pardon. Handy, who had a wife and child on-board, immediately ran down and fainted in her arms;—Lawson, addressing the clergyman, said,

"I am afraid I shall never again be so well prepared for eternity."

DUBLIN, March 3. This day, about two o'clock, James Weldon, late a private in the 7th dragoons, was executed at the front of Newgate, for high treason. He had been respited from time to time, and and it was expected he would have been finally pardoned.

#### From the LONDON GAZETTE.

##### ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, March 12.

THIS day, in pursuance of the king's pleasure, Richard Earl Howe, admiral of the white, was promoted to the rank of admiral of the fleet, in the room of the Honourable John Forbes, deceased.

The king has also been pleased to appoint Richard Earl Howe, admiral of the fleet, to be general of his majesty's marine forces, in the room of the Honourable John Forbes, deceased.

WHITEHALL, March 15. The king has been pleased to grant to the Right Hon. Alexander Lord Bridport of the kingdom of Ireland, knight of the Bath, the offices and places of vice-admiral of Great Britain, and lieutenant of the admiralty thereof, and also of lieutenant of the navies and seas, of the kingdom of Great Britain, in the room of the Right Hon. Richard Earl Howe.

The king has also been pleased to grant to the Hon. William Cornwallis the offices or places of rear-admiral of Great Britain, and of the admiralty thereof, and also of rear-admiral of the navies and seas of the kingdom of Great Britain, in the room of the said Alexander Lord Bridport.

The king has also been pleased to grant the dignity of a baronet of the kingdom of Great Britain to Sir Edward Pellew, of Trevery in the county of Cornwall, Knight, captain in the royal navy, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten.

##### ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, March, 85.

*Extract of a Letter from Captain John Cooke, of his Majesty's Ship Quebec, dated at Spithead, the 14th of March, to Evan Nepean, Esq.*

SIR, I beg you will please to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that on the tenth inst. (Scilly per account bearing N. E. distance eighteen or twenty leagues) I fell in with and captured *L'Aspic*, French national cutter, of ten guns and fifty-seven men, and brought her in here. She had been ten days from St. Maloes, and had captured the John floop, of and from Galway for Oporto.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.





